The Nation.

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The Week.

Whether for good or for ill, the people of the United States have assumed to govern the people of Porto Rico, and no better opportunity for proving our humanity can ever occur than is afforded by the disaster which has befallen that island. At present, it must be clearly understood, the entire administration of the government, central and local, is in the hands of our War Department. We have abolished whatever government heretofore existed and substituted our own. We have assumed the entire responsibility for the welfare of the island, and, according to some accounts at least, the people have welcomed our rule in the belief that their condition would be improved. Unless our enthusiasm for humanity was entirely exhausted in slaughtering the miserable Spaniards who were forced by their Government to serve as food for powder and yellow fever in Cuba, we ought to contribute most generously for the relief of the present distress.

The *Herald* has an instructive dispatch from Iloilo, showing that conditions in several of the other important Philippine islands are ripe for troubles as great as we have encountered in Luzon. Near Iloilo the insurgents are strongly intrenched, and "considerable fighting may be expected in the fall." In Cebu, "the insurgents still hold their strong positions in the mountains. The majority of the population do not want to fight, but are hostile in spirit." But what the *Herald's* correspondent has to say about Sulu and its Sultan is particularly interesting. This is the Mohammedan ruler whom our Christian and missionary Administration is trying to subsidize, promising to leave him undisturbed with his system of polygamy and slavery if only he will fly the American flag over those institutions. Thus far, the Sultan has not accepted the terms offered. Apparently they are not high enough. He gives out a statement that he is "like a brother to the nation of Americans, and wants to know if they are the same to him." Evidently, this Mohammedan despot comes high as a brother, but we must have him.

How do the people feel about the situation in the Philippines, and about the question of expansion generally? We know the position of some prominent men—although not a few politicians of high standing have been noncommittal; but how shall we discover the sentiments of the great mass of voters? A flood of light upon the feeling of the "plain people" is thrown by a canvass which has been made by *Farm and Home*, an agricultural journal published at Springfield, Mass., and Chicago, Ill., and having a great circulation in both the East and the West. On the 1st of May this journal propounded to its readers a series of ten questions, all of them bearing on our new national problem, except one as to whether United States Senators should be elected by the people, asking them to put their replies on postal cards. It now publishes a summary of the replies which have been received—nearly 21,000 in all, of which about 10 per cent. came from New England, about 25 from the Middle States, nearly 40 from the Central West, and the rest almost equally from the South and the Pacific Coast. The first question was, "Should the Filipinos be held in subjection to the United States, or should they be allowed to form an independent government?" The answers from each of the five sections of the country were largely in favor of independence, the totals footing up 12,520 for independence to 8,416 for subjection. The majority was still greater for Cuban independence—13,199, as against 7,362 for annexation. On the other hand, a large proportion favor the annexation of Porto Rico to the United States—11,897, as against 6,004 for its independence, and 1,746 for its annexation to Cuba. Finally, not to go through the whole list, the expressions of opinion were most emphatic on the comprehensive question, "In general, should the United States adhere to or depart from its former policy of non-interference with nations beyond either ocean?" There were 15,624 replies in favor of adherence, as against only 3,887 in favor of the new departure.

Senator Burrows of Michigan wishes to have it distinctly understood that he did not mean anything uncomplimentary to the President, or hostile to the Administration, in his recent interview. But he reiterates his belief that, if the end of the war in the Philippines is not in sight when the Presidential campaign of next year opens, the fact will be used to the disadvantage of the Republican party. The feeling which Senator Burrows expresses is evidently increasing among Republican politicians, and the Administration shows some recognition of the situation by the announcements that the army will be reinforced, and that other steps will be taken to end the war soon after the close of the rainy season. Moreover, there are signs that Republicans who have kept quiet about this business hitherto are getting ready to go a good deal further than Senator Burrows went, and to say that a continuance of the war will not only be bad for the Republican party, but a reproach to the nation.

To those who look on all the nations of the world as of one blood, and whose humane feeling, therefore, has embraced Spaniards as well as Cubans, it seemed that the war might prove a blessing to the common people of Spain. The government of her colonies really bankrupted the country, and when that mill-stone was cut from the neck of Spain there was hope that she might once more prosper. That hope, we sincerely regret to state, is dispelled by an examination of the Spanish budget. The last budget figured the expenditure at about $175,000,000; but the budget for the coming year estimates the expenditure at nearly $187,000,000. This increase is explained as the consequence of the additional burden laid upon Spain by the loss of her colonies and the expenses of the war. So far from being a relief, the lopping off of these colonies is to overweight the load of Spain. Instead of cutting down the expenses of the navy—and for a navy Spain has now no use—the Government has increased them. Instead of reducing the army, it has enlarged it. Instead of reducing the pension payments, it has added to them. Had reductions been made in these expenditures and in the charges for the church and the royal family, the public creditors might have felt disposed to submit to the confiscation of one-fifth of the interest to which they were entitled; but, as it is, they have good reason to complain. But the rate-payers, who are called on to pay $35,000,000 more than their average annual payments for the last ten years, deserve more sympathy. There is one thing, however, to be thankful for. The Government can no longer drag its wretched subjects from their homes to perish by pestilence in the tropics. It will continue to grind them to the most abject poverty by its exactions, but it can no longer inflict exile and death in addition to fiscal oppression.

The report of the Commissioner of Pensions contains the rather surprising statement that the number of pensioners at the end of June was actually more than 2,000 less than it was a year ago. In spite of the granting of 37,000 new pensions, the ravages of death among the old pensioners, with other causes, have decreased the total number. Death alone struck off more than 34,000 names from the roll, and other changes raised this number to 43,000. The Spanish war

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is already responsible for nearly 17,000 claims, and as less than 300 of these have been allowed, the charge on this account has not begun to be felt. It will be heavy enough if our forces are to be employed much longer in the Philippines, and it is doubtful if the pension payments will not again exceed $140,000,000. When it appears that out of 111,000 claims filed 89,000 were allowed, that nine-tenths of the applications of widows were granted, and that two-thirds of those for increase of pensions were acted on favorably, it seems difficult to believe that the present Commissioner of Pensions can be accused of lack of liberality. But when we find that during the year 63 attorneys have been disbarred, 10 suspended, and 2 dropped, and that the total number disbarred is now 1,163, we cease to be surprised at any evidence of rapacity and fraud in connection with our pension system.

Evidences of dissension, or perhaps we might say of independence, among the Bryanite politicians are multiplying. Even those who were apparently united in their approval of the Chicago platform fell out in a conference last week at Syracuse when it came to drawing up resolutions. Some of them thought that the platform should be reaffirmed, "with such modifications as changing conditions may render necessary." Others opposed this, and insisted on substituting "additions" for "modifications." The dispute over this point became so violent as to result in the secession of one faction, leaving the other to declare for Bryan and against monopolies and imperialism. While this particular conference may have been insignificant in numbers, it is yet an encouraging sign to have the shibboleth of the Chicago platform discarded. Whether we desire the success of the Democratic party or not, we desire it to have some rational principles to contend for. If the ignorant and crazy element which got control of the organization in 1896 should be broken up by its quarrels, leaders of more wisdom may assume the direction.

The meeting of the New Jersey Democratic State committee at Asbury Park last week made it very evident that the Democratic leaders in that State would be glad to see Bryan and his 16-to-1 platform eliminated from next year's Presidential campaign. A reason for this is easily found. With Bryan and his doctrine at the front in 1896, the State, long counted on as Democratic, gave McKinley the unprecedented plurality of 87,692. Last year, on a platform which ignored Bryanism, confining itself principally to State issues, the Democratic candidate for Governor kept the Republican plurality down to 5,499, the Democratic vote increasing 25,000 over the vote for Bryan two years before. With so simple a lesson in mathematics in evidence, it does not require a great deal of astuteness to convince a New Jersey Democrat that Bryan is no help to the party in his State. The "old-line" Democrats are, however, as usual, timid about taking a decisive stand against the Chicago platform, and this is probably the reason why one of the leaders who gave his advice at Asbury Park was so earnest in urging that the party should "put the young men on the firing-line." The Democratic record in New Jersey on State issues, as set forth during the last ten years, is not one which in itself would cause a very enthusiastic rally around the party banner.

If we may trust a report from Louisville, ex-Governor Altgeld has taken a different position from that of Mr. Bryan in regard to the quarrel over Goebel's nomination for Governor of Kentucky. Mr. Bryan is to take the stump in Goebel's support; but Mr. Altgeld says that his election would mean the triumph of "fraud, trickery, thuggism, and crime." It would mean that "political conventions, instead of being run by the people, and carrying out the policy and will of the people, will be run by men who betray the people, and will be controlled by those interests that plunder the country." This language certainly sounds as if it might have come from Mr. Altgeld, and if correctly reported it is of a good deal of importance. He intimates that he may go to Kentucky and make speeches against the Goebel ring, and if Mr. Bryan is to appear on the other side, the present relations between the two leaders cannot continue. However this may be, we can hardly look on Mr. Bryan's taking part in the Kentucky contest otherwise than as a political blunder. Even if not antagonized by Mr. Altgeld, he will arouse dangerous animosities.

Croker is back again, and talking volubly, in his familiar rôle of a statesmanlike observer. He went away an advocate of expansion and an opponent of Bryan. He returns an admirer of Bryan as "one of the greatest men America has produced," and an opponent of expansion. Columns of space are given to the enunciation of his new views and to speculation as to why he has abandoned his old ones. The simple explanation is that he thinks the change of position a shrewd one. He will reverse himself again within six months if he shall conclude next winter that he has made a mistake now.

The Mazet committee has adjourned for a month. Its work during the past fortnight has been very fruitful. The chief features have been the exposure of police demoralization as it is shown in the rapid increase of thefts and robberies, and the proof of the reckless disregard of the public interests with which contracts are given out to favorites by Tammany officials, as in the making of the ridiculous Horgan & Slattery municipal architects, and in the grant of most valuable privileges to corporations by the Department of Public Buildings, Lighting, and Supplies. If the community were not hardened to such things, there would be an outburst of popular indignation at the testimony of Commissioner Kearny on Friday, viz., that he gave both the Metropolitan and the Third Avenue Companies the right to put in thirty-six underground ducts on each side of the streets which they use, without getting any return for the city, and although he well knew that they did not need any such number for the wires to operate their cars, and must intend to utilize a large proportion of them for the very lucrative business of furnishing electric power in various ways. It is a public service to bring out and put on the record such facts as these, even if nothing appears likely to come from it immediately.

The Commerce Commission of the State of New York is busily engaged in ascertaining the depth and width of various canals in this country and Canada. Information of this character is, of course, necessary to enable the Commission to understand the condition of the commerce of New York city. But it is to be hoped that the Commission will not lose sight of the fact that, no matter how much money is spent on the Erie Canal, the kind of government maintained in this city is ultimately decisive. If property becomes less secure here, if taxes are to continue to increase, and blackmail to become a necessary expense in every kind of business, the commerce of the port will probably decline. No natural advantages, no development of waterways, will counterbalance the drawback of misgovernment. These natural and artificial advantages have made New York the cheapest port for both exports and imports. Local extravagance and corruption, together with the tariff outrages concocted by Congress or invented by Appraiser Wakeman, are fast making it the dearest.

The shooting of M. Labori, one of the counsel of Dreyfus, at an early hour on Monday morning, while he was on his way from his lodgings to the court-room, is the most dramatic incident of the Dreyfus case so far, but, perhaps, not the most exciting that the trial will give rise to. The arrest of Déroulède and others on a charge of conspiracy to overturn the Government, simultaneous-

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ly with the events at Rennes; the conflict of testimony between Gen. Mercier and ex-President Casimir-Perier, and the rising heat within the precincts of the court-martial, all point to something like a crisis in the history of the republic, but what will be the outcome no one can foretell: It seems quite certain that the parties desiring a change in the form of government have seized upon the Dreyfus case as a *pou sto* for overturning the republic. There has been no moment, since the government of Napoleon III. was abolished, when such parties did not exist, and when they were not conspiring to restore the Bonapartist or Bourbon or Orleans monarchy. Any kind of internal commotion or external complication plays into their hands, and nothing could serve them better than the passions aroused by the Dreyfus revision.

In his testimony on Monday M. Casimir-Perier denied flatly the statement of Gen. Mercier that in 1895, when Dreyfus was on trial, there was danger of a war with Germany, and the Berlin papers ridicule the idea of such a war. Why was it necessary to get up a war scare when the former court-martial was in session? Evidently to have an excuse for the secrecy of the trial. In a secret trial, where the judges were prejudiced against the accused, it would be possible to alter documents, to introduce new matter into them, to insert the name of Dreyfus in place of the letter "D," and to bring in a verdict of guilty based upon a medley of forgeries and inconsequential matter that the prisoner and his counsel were not allowed to examine. For such a dastardly purpose a war scare was the most appropriate means at hand. This was Gen. Mercier's last card in the former trial, and is played for what it is worth now, but Casimir-Perier's testimony trumps it completely.

There is abundant reason to give credence to the London *Times's* statement that the leading traitor in the affair for which Dreyfus suffered was Lieut.-Col. Henry, who while in prison cut his own throat, and that Esterhazy was his tool, sharing the proceeds of their joint perfidy. Esterhazy was a weak character, eaten up by vices, unenterprising, and incapable of carrying on an extended plot, although base enough for any crime. Henry was a man of hardihood and of no little adroitness, as is shown by the fact that he pushed his way to the head of the secret-service department of the French army, while efforts were making to find the culprit who was betraying his country by supplying information to Germany. It was while acting in this capacity that he was detected as the forger of a document to confirm the guilt of Dreyfus, who had already been condemned and was at that time suffering punishment on Devil's Island. For this forgery he was arrested and imprisoned. His suicide was not quite explainable on the theory that he was merely seeking to keep Dreyfus in prison, but it was easily explainable if he were the chief traitor for whose crimes an innocent man was suffering. It is a safe wager that this will turn out to be the true solution of the mystery. The question whether there are not other officers, of higher rank than Henry, who had guilty knowledge of Henry's crime, if nothing more, now becomes one of exceeding interest.

It is at last positively stated by Lord George Hamilton, the Secretary of State for India, that the Government has deliberately concluded that the gold standard is required in the interest of that empire. No other conclusion could well be reached; nor will any disturbance be likely to occur in consequence of this decision. An expiring wail is extorted by the decision from Mr. Moreton Frewen, but, compared with his former truculent vaporings, it has a despairing sound. The worst of it, according to him, is that not 3 per cent. of the inhabitants of India have yet learned that their currency was tampered with in 1893. This suggests the appalling possibility that as the outrage inflicted on them has escaped discovery so long, they may never find it out at all, and 300,000,000 of people may thus, like patients disembowelled by surgeons while under the influence of anæsthetics, not know that anything has happened to them. As is well known, the common people of this country did not really understand about "the crime of 1873" until about the year 1896, which was so late in the day as to make it impossible to convince the majority of them that any crime had been committed. At all events, no one can maintain that the present action of the Government will make the condition of the people of India any worse than it has been; and as the price of silver has an upward tendency, that condition, if in any way connected with the price of silver, may be ameliorated.

The currency of India is therefore to be established on a basis in some respects similar to that of France and the United States, but with important differences. No more silver will be coined at the mint, but there will be a gold coinage as well as a gold standard, and the British sovereign will be a legal tender. The silver rupee will have an arbitrary value, sixteen pence, or fifteen rupees to the sovereign. The rupee will continue to be a legal tender, but the Indian Government assumes no obligation at present to maintain the "parity" of the metals. Practically, one can exchange silver coins for gold at the official agencies of the governments of France and the United States, but nothing of the kind is contemplated by the Indian authorities. It is not improbable, however, that the legal "parity" may be maintained in practice, because the price of silver is not likely to fluctuate a great deal, now that its demonetization as standard money has taken place throughout the civilized world.

Complaints of the conduct of English soldiers in India have been made from time to time, and a few days ago a long list of outrages committed by them against natives was read out in the House of Lords. The charges covered everything from robbery and assault to wanton murder. It was a pretty black showing for Tommy Atkins. The Secretary for War did not deny that the army in India had been disgraced by such crimes, and said that everybody must regard them with the "utmost reprobation." The War Office would do its best to see that the offenders were brought to justice. Still, he thought that there had been an improvement. The amount of crime committed by British soldiers in India had steadily diminished, as had the number of courts-martial. All that the discipline of the army could do to repress and punish acts of ill-usage of the natives was continually exerted; yet such things, admitted the Secretary, were inseparable from military life. He evidently needs to sit through a lecture by Gov. Roosevelt on the "strenuous life."

It is not surprising that Americans should look on the confederation of the Australian colonies as a normal step in their political evolution. The votes cast in the Australian colonies, however, indicate that very diverse views concerning the wisdom of confederation prevail there. In Victoria, South Australia, and Tasmania, the advantages of confederation were so clear as to make the vote for it overwhelming. But in New South Wales the case was very different, and as 80,000 votes were cast against confederation, to 101,000 in its favor, it is evident that some grave objections were believed to exist. One of these objections was that the taxes of New South Wales would be increased; but the most serious one was that the free-trade policy, so long established in New South Wales, can hardly be maintained. The Federal Parliament will probably be a protectionist body, and the establishment of intercolonial free trade will be a small compensation for the creation of a tariff wall against the outside world. The prosperity of Sydney cannot be expected to increase at its former rate, and the whole colony will probably find it has surrendered substantial advantages for those of a sentimental character.

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THE FILIPINOS TO THE POWERS.

On the subject of Aguinaldo's appeal to the Powers to bring influence to bear at Washington for the purpose of ending "the unjust war which is devastating the country," it may be instructive to imagine the substance of the remarks that might be made in the Cortes by that distinguished Senator and General, Don Valeriano Weyler.

"I take the floor [*pido la palabra*], Mr. President, to call the attention of the Senate and the Government to the request of the Filipino republic for recognition by the European Powers. Grave questions of international law and comity are involved in this matter, upon which it might be thought that I, a brusque soldier, should have no competence to speak. But your Señorías will not forget that during my administration of the island of Cuba these same questions were fully discussed in the Senate of the United States. It was my duty to take cognizance of what was said by the able jurists in the American Senate. The swords of the insurgents I could well despise, but who would not tremble before the tongue of a Frye, a Lodge, a Morgan? A mere child myself in all these niceties of international law, I sat at the feet of the Gamaliels in the Senate at Washington, and it is from them I learned the great principles regulating the attitude of one nation towards the colonies of another, and determining the recognition of insurrectionary forces. Simply using the word Filipinos where the learned American Senators said Cubans, I will show your Señorías that it is our duty, as it is that of all the European Powers, to interfere in the name of humanity and liberty to put an end to the cruel war in the Philippines.

"One of the dicta of the illustrious Lodge, Mr. President, was that there was something unnatural and abhorrent in the arbitrary control of an island, containing 1,500,000 people, by a country 3,000 miles away. What shall we say, then, of sending troops to subdue 8,000,000 people 7,000 miles away? Again, it was argued by the enlightened Morgan that recognition of the Cuban insurgents was due them because they were supreme in a large part of the island. What did it matter, he demanded, if Spain held the capital and all the seaports? The Cubans held the mountains and swamps in the interior—a larger area, all told, than that controlled by the Spaniards—and were therefore entitled to be known as the masters of the island. This is an overwhelming [*contundente*] argument for the immediate recognition of the Filipinos. They rule a far larger part of Luzon than the rebels did of Cuba. On the five-foot map of the Philippines, all the territory in the control of the Americans can be covered by a child's hand. If we heed the appeal of the Filipinos, we shall simply, therefore, be executing the principles taught us by distinguished Americans.

"The prolonged and bloody nature of the war in the Philippines, Mr. President, is another reason for interference by neutral Powers. Gen. Otis's predictions of a speedy collapse of the insurrection have proved as illusory as those I used to issue in Havana. The Filipinos are fighting more stubbornly than the Cubans. There is no hope of subduing them except by exterminating them. Many American soldiers say that the natives will have to be killed off. But when I said the same thing of Cuban rebels, the American public cried out on 'Weyler the Butcher,' and Senators clamored for American interference to prevent the extermination of men who could not conquer, but would not submit. Is it not time for us, and for all civilized Powers, to say to President McKinley, as he said to Spain: 'In the name of humanity, this war must stop'?

"Point after point in the American argument for recognizing Cuban belligerency might be pressed, Mr. President, as conclusive reasons for our granting belligerent rights to the Filipinos. The latter have a larger army than the Cubans ever had. They have a fully organized Congress, composed of 100 men, who, writes one American observer, 'would compare in behavior, manner, dress, and education with the average men of the better classes of other Asiatic nations.' As for their fitness to govern themselves, we have the testimony of the victorious Dewey and the American General King, that they are far superior to the Cubans in that particular. An American correspondent wrote of Aguinaldo's government that 'he has made life and property safe, . . . made brigandage and loot impossible . . . and a woman's honor safer in Luzon than it has been for thirty years.' There is thus a far stronger and more promising republic in the Philippines than there ever was in Cuba. The American publicists who taught us that it was right to recognize the one, will be the last to complain if we recognize the other.

"Spain, your Señorías, has especial reason for moving in this matter. Several thousand Spanish prisoners are in the hands of the Filipinos—not only soldiers, but civilians, many women and children. Their sufferings wring our hearts. The United States undertook, by the Treaty of Paris, to secure their liberty, but has not been able to do so. Our country offered to ransom them for a great sum, but the Americans would not allow it. Aguinaldo now proposes to release the captives if we will recognize his government. How long would the Americans have hesitated if the case had been as flagrant in Cuba? They say of the Filipinos, as we said of the Cuban rebels, that they are bandits and savages. But let me read what a Frenchman, M. Jean Hess, says of the Filipinos, after being long with their army. He is an impartial witness, and he writes in the *Figaro*: 'It is surely a marvellous thing, the resistance of these peasants, led into battle by generals of twenty years, only yesterday in college, beardless boys, young lawyers and doctors. These Filipinos are not the savages, the stupid brutes, that they are said to be in America. They are polite and devoted and courageous to an extraordinary degree.' If the Cubans deserved rescue from destruction, do not these young heroes?

"But it may be said, Mr. President, that for Spain to interfere would give offence to the United States, and might lead to war. Ah, your Señorías, let me tell you what I have learned from reading the debates in the United States Senate. In the speeches in that body it was clearly laid down, by its most influential members, that for America to recognize Cuban belligerency would really be an act of great friendship towards Spain; that Spaniards could not possibly resent it. Boldly commending their own chalice to their lips, let us, then, take the action in behalf of the Filipinos that the United States, for less provocation, took in behalf of the Cubans, and welcome this noble people, struggling against foreign oppressors for their liberty, to the rights and privileges of an independent nation. *He dicho.*"

A PAROCHIAL PROBLEM.

The policy of annexing to the United States remote countries, inhabited by vast alien populations, has been conscientiously opposed, it cannot be too often repeated, because it is detrimental to our own interests. It is not a question of improving the morals of the Filipinos; it is a question of impairing our own. We may concede that if we could benefit other communities by undertaking to govern them, it would be our duty to assume the task, provided the government of our own community did not suffer. But it has been argued, and, in the forum where reason and experience are controlling we may say it has been demonstrated, that our government was so constituted by its founders as to be unfitted to rule over subject races. Government for the people and of the people cannot signify the government of one people by another.

Furthermore, our system of government has become infected with disorders so serious as to make not only its improvement, but even its preservation, a sufficient task for all the forces of reform. To undertake the civilization of millions of Asiatics when the continuance of our own civilization demanded all our energies, seemed, therefore, a policy fraught with disaster. The problem of the relations between white and colored citizens, so far from being solved, is assuming a more serious cha-

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racter than ever. The problems arising from the multiplication of foreigners, ignorant of the elements of political ethics, in our great cities, are now of sufficient gravity to arouse general alarm. Such considerations, however, were lightly brushed aside as ignoble and petty. The very existence of these problems was denied, or, if they were recognized, they were described as parochial, and as, therefore, undeserving of the attention of a people numbering seventy millions. So great a nation, it was declared, had only to undertake to civilize the Malays, in order to develop sufficient virtue to correct the domestic abuses which had shown signs of being incorrigible. We had not succeeded in reforming ourselves; but if we undertook to reform others, we should incidentally work out our own salvation.

If we are not mistaken, this was the doctrine proclaimed by the Rev. Washington Gladden, and it is, therefore, significant to find him now expatiating, in the *Independent*, on the "Perils of the Public Schools." He declares that we have come to a critical period in the history of education in this country. "The administration of our schools is surrounded with grave dangers; there are many signs of deterioration; these are tendencies that must be checked, or the foundations will be destroyed." It is true, Mr. Gladden admits, that to tell the truth about the matter—and one may add about some other matters—is to run the risk of being called all sorts of opprobrious names. But he believes that the "shifty optimism" of Americans needs to be rudely disturbed. Our systems of public education are the sources from which our national life derives its vigor. But "poisonous or debilitating moral influences" are getting possession of our schools, and unless they are expelled, the doom of the nation will not be long delayed. Hitherto the moral influences prevailing in the public schools have been on the whole sound; the teaching force has been excellent. But it is now undergoing deterioration of a serious character, and the injury which assails and perverts it comes from the government of the schools. The persons who control the employment of teachers, the administration of the schools, and the courses of study pursued, are inferior, in intelligence and in reputation, to their employees.

This was formerly not true, nor is it now true everywhere; but, as a general rule, Mr. Gladden declares, it is true. The excellence of our public-school system has been due to the fact that until recently men of culture and character were intrusted with this duty. But it is "a melancholy and portentous fact that in many cities these places are falling into the hands of petty politicians, and are used by them mainly for the promotion of their interests." Hence, there is corruption in the purchase of sites, the erection of buildings, the selection of books, the purchasing of supplies. Teachers are even subject to "assessments"; they have to pay to get their places and to keep them, and Mr. Gladden cites many cases where prominent teachers have been dismissed because their opinions were displeasing to political bosses. It follows that "honorable and high-minded teachers are humiliated by the necessity of dealing with incompetent employers; to be put under such direction and censorship is degrading. . . . Pretenders and charlatans in the school-room are more likely to get credit and promotion than the conscientious teachers. The most capable young men and women halt and turn back on the threshold of the profession, because of the precariousness of the tenure and the annoyances of the associations."

Mr. Gladden's testimony hardly needs to be confirmed. Similar complaints are everywhere made, and the evils are so intimately connected with our system of party government that we should believe them to exist without positive testimony. Nor does Mr. Gladden exaggerate the seriousness of the evil, which he admits cannot be removed by legislation, but only by the aroused conscience of the people. But when we consider that this is only one of a number of intestine disorders, that the task of arousing the conscience of the people concerning even one of them is herculean, while to deal with them all is hopeless, and that the dominant element in our government looks on all such questions as too petty for our attention, we cannot envy our religious expansionists their feelings. They can offer no reasonable ground for expecting any reform in our system of government, even in the case of the public schools. They have seen the attitude of the Administration towards reforming the civil service, and they will be face to face with the misgovernment of our colonies as soon as their military administration terminates, if not before. Such light-hearted assumption of responsibilities for the discharge of which no preparation or competency exists, appears to us altogether unprincipled. It is properly attributed to the "shifty optimism" of our people, as Mr. Gladden calls it; and there is no commoner cause of failure to meet obligations that should have been assumed only after careful deliberation.

RAILROAD POOLING.

At a public dinner in Chicago last week, speeches were made by the Hon. M. A. Knapp, Chairman of the Interstate Commerce Commission, and by Mr. Paul Morton, General Manager of the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé Railroad, both of considerable moment, in view of the fact that, while differing on many points, they agreed that railroad pooling ought to be legalized. The pooling privilege was taken away from the railroads by the Interstate Commerce act a long time ago. The main object of the law was to prevent unjust discriminations in rates; and all the powers of the Government have since been employed to enforce the law. The net result of these protracted efforts was recounted by Mr. Knapp in his speech at Chicago in these words:

> "I undertake to say that if the worst enemy of the railroads whom you can name were elected President of the United States, and if he should pack the Interstate Commerce Commission with the worst Populists of the land, those men would never dare to do the reckless and indecent things which the managers of railroads themselves have done. Can you name any five men so ignorant, so prejudiced, so inimical to the common interests of the country that they would upset the commerce of the country and demoralize rates and business in the way the railroad men have done by putting in force the rates that now prevail to the seaboard by way of Galveston from the Missouri River? Would they let the Missouri River rate be as low as the Chicago rate? Would they allow flour to be carried from Minneapolis to the Atlantic cheaper than from Chicago? In such things the railroads are making a fearful misuse of their power."

Presuming that Mr. Knapp's statement is true—and there is no reason to doubt it—what does it teach to a real statesman? Apparently this: that Congress, obeying the behest of public opinion, set out to prevent certain abuses of railway management, but failed to adopt proper measures to that end; that the steps taken have rather aggravated the evils they were intended to cure; and that the time has now come for the adoption of more rational means to prevent the abuses complained of. A philosopher would go a little further, and say that since all the harsh punishments devised to prevent railway discriminations had failed, it would be wise to attack and if possible remove the motive for making the discriminations. Railway men do not discriminate without a cause. They do not incur the penalties of the law from any natural penchant for crime. They are in business to make money, and they would prefer to make it lawfully. It is easier for them, as well as safer, to sit in their offices and take traffic as it comes, instead of running and rummaging for it and getting it by secret, underhand, lying methods which subject them if detected to fine and imprisonment.

It is vitally necessary to the railway man that he shall get business. His official existence depends upon that. The law may fine him for the methods he adopts, but get it he must. His rivals and competitors will get it if he does not. Probably they are using the prohibited means for taking it away from him. In other words, they are probably cutting rates, gouging, cheating, lying, and discriminating wherever they can find a carload of freight of any kind. They are doing the same things he is doing, and they are denying it just

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as he does. They may all be caught, and, after a long investigation followed by a long trial, punished, but the evil breaks out at another place immediately, and as soon as the backs of the Interstate Commerce Commissioners are turned, it breaks out afresh, with perhaps some variation of form or method, at the same place where the investigation and trial occurred.

In short, the Interstate Commerce law sought to expel nature with a fork, and it failed. Railway discriminations, although not so open as formerly, are as flagrant, as damaging, as disastrous, and more demoralizing than before—more demoralizing because they involve and necessitate more falsity and more perjury than before. The pooling system, which the law prohibited, was established expressly to take away all motive for discrimination in rates between individuals and localities. The vital principle of the pool is that the earnings of competing railways shall be placed in a common heap and divided among the competitors with a small percentage of gain based upon actual earnings—a percentage sufficient to keep them up to a certain standard of efficiency, so that no road may get a share of the money without doing a share of the work. This simple and philosophical safeguard against railway discriminations happened to run counter to the popular demand for competition in the carrying trade, and was sternly prohibited. Hence these twenty years of riotous discrimination, in spite of all the powers of Congress, of national commissions, of State commissions, of public sentiment, and of the public press. And now Mr. Knapp formally protests against "the error and inconsistency of a legislative policy which makes rate competition compulsory, and at the same time condemns as criminal misdemeanors the acts and inducements by which in other spheres of activity competition is mainly effected." For this reason he advocates "the legal sanction of combination by rival carriers in the conveyance of passengers and property between competitive points."

"This," he continues, "is the one sensible and practicable plan, adapted to present conditions and suited to existing requirements. Such a policy would promote and invite the conduct of public transportation upon principles consonant with the nature of the service and beneficial to the people and the railroads alike. Legalized pooling would promote the public welfare, because it would give railways the opportunity now lacking to conduct their business by just and honest methods, and range their interest and influence on the side of law."

Replying to the suggestion or thought that he might be here advocating the principle on which Trusts and combines are founded, Mr. Knapp points out the difference—that in commercial transactions concerning commodities in the market we want not uniformity of price but competitive prices, while in the transportation of property we want uniform charges without favor or discrimination. At all events, experience has shown that in the matter of railway management our choice lies between competition on the one hand and discriminations on the other—discriminations for the benefit of the few at the expense of the many. We cannot have railway competition and fair dealing at the same time. We can take whichever we like best; Mr. Knapp thinks that fair dealing and uniform rates are the desiderata of the present day. He would have the Interstate Commerce Commission vested with power to fix rates where they are unreasonable—a power which necessarily includes the fixing of all rates, since it depends upon the Commissioners to say what rates are reasonable and what are not. This seems to us rather a long stride toward absolutism, or socialism, as the case may be.

Mr. Paul Morton concurred with Mr. Knapp on the pooling question, and went a step farther toward enlarging the powers of the Commission. He said that he "would like to see all transportation, that which passes between two points in the same State as well as interstate traffic, declared subject to federal supervision and amenable to the national commission."

THE TRANSVAAL TROUBLE.

The danger of war between England and the Transvaal is undoubtedly increased by the proroguing of Parliament. Mr. Chamberlain, in whose hands the management of the affair now practically rests, is an ambitious and not too scrupulous man, and might easily, when freed from daily questioning in the Commons, commit the country to some position from which there would be no escape except by an appeal to arms. He has greatly increased his prestige and power by his career as Colonial Secretary, and will not shrink from war—in fact, so we learn privately, tells his friends that he rather desires it—if he can see a good chance of thereby adding to his own and his country's glory. He is not a man, either, to be deterred by the hobgoblin of inconsistency. If he were, he might well have been staggered by the two extracts from his own speeches of only three years ago, which were thrown in his face by Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman the other night. They are well worth reproducing. On May 8, 1896, he said in the House:

"A war in South Africa would be one of the most serious wars that could possibly be waged. It would be a long war, a bitter war, and a costly war, and, as I have pointed out already, I believe generations would hardly be able to blot it out; and to go to war with President Krüger to enforce upon him reforms in the internal affairs of his State, in which Secretaries of State, standing in their place, have repudiated all right of interference—that would be a course of action which would be immoral."

And later in the same year, he said:

"What is the alternative policy which the honorable member would have put forward? We know what it would be. He would have sent an ultimatum to President Krüger that, unless these reforms, which he would have specified, were granted by a particular day, the British Government would interfere by force, and then he would have come here and he would have asked the House for a vote of credit of £10,000,000 or £20,000,000—it would not matter which particularly—and would send an army of 20,000 men at least to force President Krüger to grant reforms in a State with which we have pledged ourselves repeatedly—not this Government, but previous governments by the mouths of successive Secretaries of State—that we would have nothing to do. That is his policy. It is not my policy, and it never will be."

Mr. Chamberlain's view of the serious character of what would be practically a race war in South Africa is more than confirmed by a writer in the last *Fortnightly*. He is an Englishman, and describes himself as an Imperialist and Conservative; yet he declares, out of a knowledge gained by twenty-three years' residence in South Africa, that a war to gain the reforms sought in the Transvaal not only would be unjustifiable, but would "mean ruin and disaster for the territories south of the Zambesi." Moreover, he presents figures to show how greatly the available forces of the Dutch, in all those regions, outnumber the British. If it comes to a race war, the Dutch can put 92,300 men into the field to-morrow, as against no more than 39,500 that could be mustered by the British. Of course, England could pour in troops and would conquer in the end; but her statesmen may well pause before entering upon a struggle which could not fail, says this writer in the *Fortnightly*, to "leave a legacy of undying hatred and distrust between the two white races."

Yet British subjects resident in the Transvaal have great grievances, which it is undoubtedly the duty of the English Government to see redressed. The main trouble is the denial of the franchise and of representation to 90,000 British, who pay nine-tenths of the taxes of the country, and yet have absolutely no political rights, as against the 80,000 or 85,000 Boers who rule over them. This not only is an outrage in itself, but is in the teeth of what the Transvaal authorities promised when the London Convention was agreed upon. To show concisely how Krüger went back on his word, we will first quote his promises made at the time the Convention of 1881 was negotiated, and then show how he gave them the lie.

"The Commissioners were Sir Hercules Robinson (President), Sir Evelyn Wood, and Sir Henry de Villiers. They held several conferences with Mr. Krüger and other Boer leaders. At one of these conferences the following conversation took place:

"President—Before annexation, had British subjects complete freedom of trade throughout the Transvaal? Were they on the same footing as the citizens of the Transvaal?

"Mr. Krüger—They were on the same footing as the burghers; there was not the slightest difference, in accordance with the Sand River convention.

"President—I presume you will not object to that continuing?

"Mr. Krüger—No. There will be equal protection for everybody.

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"Sir E. Wood—And equal privileges?
"Mr. Krüger—We make no difference, so far as burgher rights are concerned. There may perhaps be some slight difference in the case of a young person who has just come into the country."

Now how did Krüger live up to that agreement? At the time he made it, and also in 1884, when the second London Convention was framed, the naturalization law of the Transvaal simply required five years' prior residence. That was reasonable enough, and it applied to all. But in 1886 began the great inrush of foreigners, when the Witwatersrand goldfields were exploited, and in 1889, when many of these immigrants were approaching burghership, the law was suddenly changed so as to restrict citizenship absolutely to Boers born in the Transvaal. Later the law was again modified, so as to admit to citizenship after twelve or fourteen years, and on very onerous terms; but in 1894 the rule of complete exclusion was restored. Nothing could more surely fix the charge of bad faith upon President Krüger.

But he is a very astute old gentleman, and is evidently preparing to make every reasonable concession in order to avoid war. In fact, he has already come very near to granting the entire British demand as formulated by Sir Alfred Milner. It is only a difference between a five and a seven years' residential qualification for citizenship, with all residents prior to 1890 enfranchised at a stroke. That difference is surely not worth a bloody war. If Mr. Chamberlain is patient, he will get all he ought to ask by means of moral pressure and renewed negotiations. His triumph would be all the greater if peacefully won. There is good reason to think it will be, and that, despite his truculent tone in the final session of Parliament, there will be no war.

COPYRIGHT IN SPEECHES.

A novelty in copyright is involved in the decision made on Thursday by Mr. Justice North of the English High Court of Justice. The case before him was curious. In the recent volume of 'Appreciations and Addresses,' by Lord Rosebery, were included five speeches taken almost verbatim from reports in the London *Times*. Lord Rosebery himself furnished the clippings to his publisher (John Lane), freely making over all his right and title to them. But the *Times* contended that he had no rights in the premises whatever; that its reports were copyrighted; and it brought suit to restrain publication of the volume containing the alleged infringements on its own copyright. The Court has now decided for the newspaper, and has granted an injunction against the publisher.

The case was argued on July 14, and from the views then advanced by learned counsel it is possible to infer the grounds on which the decision was based. It was agreed on both sides that Lord Rosebery himself had no copyright in his oral address, as such. He might have secured it, by taking the steps indicated in the law of copyright to protect "lecturers," but he failed to do so. Therefore, his winged words became, the moment they left his lips, public property. The only question was as to the copyright of the report published in the *Times*.

It certainly seems, at first sight, a moral if not a legal absurdity that one man can so copyright the words of another that the latter has no right to reproduce them. The value of the speeches lay in the fact that they were Lord Rosebery's. The words were his. Is it not of the essence of copyright that it can be gained only by the author of original matter? Is the reporter to be given rights above the orator? Is the copy more sacred than the original? The defence made the most of this line of argument. But the plaintiff pressed home the single legal point which seems to have prevailed with the court. This was that there is no such thing as copyright of ideas; it is all a matter of literary form; and Lord Rosebery having abandoned his ideas and words to the use of the public at large, the reporter who gave them a certain form is entitled to exclusive control of that form. Some other report might be used without his consent, but that particular report is his own, the product of his own labor and skill, and cannot be appropriated by another. This was, in brief, the contention of the plaintiff's counsel, and Judge North has evidently upheld it.

The decision is no doubt good law, but it has its humorous features. Some of these were dwelt upon by Lord Rosebery himself the other day, before the case was decided. He was speaking to the boys at Epsom College, and apologized for the brevity of his remarks on the ground that "there is a question of the copyright of what you are likely to say." The only thing perfectly clear about copyright of a speech was that "the one person who has no property in it is the man who delivers it." For himself, therefore, he felt it would be almost criminal, until the question was settled, to "add to this species of indescribable property which is at this moment in the lost-luggage office of the law." It would prove a serious embarrassment to public speakers, he said, if what they uttered to-day might be decided to-morrow to be stolen goods.

Of course, the law of copyright has to rule out all questions of literary excellence. It knows nothing but a form of words. A furniture catalogue may be copyrighted just as securely as a poem by Swinburne. Railway time-tables or Stock Exchange reports are just as sacred in the eye of the law, just as deserving of protection, as a novel by Miss Wilkins or even by Laura Jean Libbey. Whether little or much brain and labor has gone to the production of a given arrangement of words, whether their market value be small or great, are questions into which the law of copyright cannot enter. It simply undertakes to protect any literary form, no matter how or by whom wrought out; and it is only a legitimate extension of that doctrine to protect the reporter who has produced the form, though the ideas are another's.

One argument advanced in this particular case was that the reporter's work was analogous to that of a translator. Translations are copyrighted, though without a single original idea; so, it was argued, may be the report of a speech. We do not know how much legal effect was given to this contention; but we do know that reporters often are translators of an astonishing sort. They sometimes put an orator's words into such a shape that, far from wishing to assert any property in them, he freely and even indignantly repudiates any responsibility for them. On the other hand, reporters in the guise of translators have been known to do great service to orators—making their speeches read much better than they sounded on delivery. Dr. Johnson was the original reporter of this kind, taking care, he said, so to report the speeches in Parliament that the Whig dogs should not have the best of it. A modern instance is given in connection with the late Sir John Macdonald. He had given orders to the leading Ottawa paper that his speeches were always to be reported verbatim, as he prided himself on the perfection of his extempore style. But once, when he spoke after dining generously, the reporter's notes turned out so incoherent that the editor took fright, and sent the young man to get Sir John's own revision of his remarks. That statesman gravely corrected the reporter's literal transcript of what he had said, and as gravely remarked to him on taking leave, "Young man, let me give you a piece of advice, of which I fear you stand in need: never touch liquor."

ALASKAN NOTES.

SOUTHEAST ALASKA, July, 1899.

Four years ago I gave the readers of the *Nation* an account of the changes which I had observed to have taken place in Alaska since 1880, and also a statement of the conditions noted as existing in 1895. These records were made at a propitious moment, for, while they were being written, the steamer *Portland*, with her epoch-making cargo of Klondike gold, was actually on the way to Seattle. A few weeks later, a whole continent was rippled with excitement, which rose in many instances to a species of mania, and resulted in the Klondike "rush" of 1896. From all quarters of the world a horde of gold-seekers converged towards the passes at the head of Lynn Canal, with results which are known to all men.

The half-insane indifference to conditions

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and limitations which has marked all recorded "rushes"—and which the climate of the Yukon rendered especially noteworthy in the present case—has at last subsided. Matters in Alaska and on the Canadian Yukon are assuming a business-like aspect. Men who have good claims are working them quietly; while thousands who rushed in without knowledge, experience, or means, are leaving a country which they should never have entered, or are pushing out as a forlorn hope into the still unexplored wilderness. I have heard it estimated by men familiar with the district, that six thousand persons have left or will be leaving during the present season, from the vicinity of Dawson alone, while the exodus from Kotzebue Sound and the Copper River basin promises to be complete. I cannot find that an ounce of gold has been obtained by any man in the district strictly belonging to Copper River, and many of those returning allege that none of the statements made by the agents of transportation companies in regard to this area has proved true. Yet some two thousand persons entered that domain of snow. How many have succumbed to scurvy, starvation, and the perils of the route, will never be known. The survivors are being gradually collected and aided to return to civilization by the Government of the United States.

It may be more convenient to review briefly the situation in geographical order, beginning in the southeast and proceeding northward and westward.

The condition of affairs at Metlakatla, or Port Chester, Annette Island, is very satisfactory. Mr. Duncan's community has evidently prospered; the number of cottages has increased; the church is finished and is a monument to the industry and skill of its native builders. It may seem paradoxical to speak of the melody of an Indian dialect, but the sermon in Tsimpsian to which we listened was certainly melodious and agreeable to the ear, while the hymns, sung in English, were not less so. The Klondike fever had drawn away the creatures who, under the pretence of mining, were endeavoring to establish a groggery on the south shore of the island, and they doubtless found a more congenial and profitable field of operations somewhere on the road to Dawson.

Much prospecting has been done in the Prince of Wales archipelago, and those engaged in the work speak very hopefully of the veins discovered. There are no placer mines in this district, and the development of the quartz leads is hardly far enough advanced to warrant an expression of opinion as to their value. The Sumdum Bay district is producing gold, and the quartz there, which promised so well in 1895, we were informed is now yielding satisfactory returns.

At Wrangell the boom resulting from the alleged route to the Yukon, via the Stikine River and Glenora, has collapsed, and the town presents no signs of life. A row of stern-wheel steamers, peacefully decaying on their skids, is more eloquent than any verbal testimony to the cessation of the river trade.

There is little change at Sitka. The Presbyterian mission seems flourishing, and, at the time of my visit, mine-owners were awaiting the melting of the snow on the mountains in order to introduce to their properties several experts who were awaiting an opportunity to inspect them. At Juneau and Douglas signs of steady growth were visible; the latter already seems to exceed Juneau in the matter of houses and local population. The steady increase in the facilities for working the low-grade ores of the Treadwell lode has resulted in an aggregation of more than eight hundred stamps, which is confidently claimed by Alaskans to be the largest number on any continuous property under one management in the world, and which is exceeded, if at all, only by some of the South African mines in the Transvaal. The growth of the mining industry in all this region appears to have been on a business basis, the Klondike excitement having merely led capitalists to look into the various properties sooner than they would have done otherwise.

Proceeding northwards, we come upon Skagway, the town of the future. This place has passed through its "storm and stress" period. The horde of adventurers who made it a bye-word for a time, are now scattered. The Yukon and White Pass Railroad, now completed to Lake Bennett, has its seaward terminus at Skagway. This railroad has recently come into control of the telpherage line over the Chilkoot Pass, so that, for some time to come, if not permanently, the monopoly of the traffic over the passes is in their hands. We have heard much of the terrors of both passes, and the exaggeration has not been very great; but I do not remember having seen any extended reference in print to the scenery of these passes, which is remarkably fine. I suppose it will not be long before a ride to the summit will form a part of every well-conducted tourist trip. On the 7th of June we visited the summit, where the ice on Summit Lake was in a slushy condition, and saw what was perhaps the last sledge train depart for Lake Bennett. The ice was pronounced unsafe for further use, and now the railway is completed to Lake Bennett, connecting with lake and river steamers for Dawson, which can be reached from Skagway in six days. This seems to insure the future of the town, as, for a long time to come, fast freight for the upper Yukon will follow this route. Skagway itself is situated on a level gravel-flat, with room to grow and plenty of water-power within easy reach. Abundant wharfage is already provided, a pure water supply reaches the town in pipes, and the streets and building-lots have been laid out with forethought, though as yet but partially improved or cleared. Permanence in the output of the Upper Yukon placers will mean a steady growth and reasonable prosperity for Skagway.

Westward from the Sitkan archipelago, conditions are somewhat different; intercourse with civilization is more restricted and the mails less frequent. Prospectors have been everywhere, but there are few places where mining is actually carried on. The black sands of Lituya Bay and Yakutat occasionally afford rich returns to the gold-washer, but, like similar sands in Oregon and California, their occurrence and metallic contents are too capricious and variable to insure a permanently paying industry, or one which can be relied on to last in any particular locality for even a single season.

I have already referred to Copper River and the total absence of gold, in a commercial sense, in its basin. At its mouth are beds of lignite and traces of oil and asphaltum. A party was reported as vigorously engaged in exploring the coal; but, since there is no harbor from which it could be shipped, even if a market existed, it seems unlikely that results of commercial importance will follow.

Prince William Sound is a picturesque sheet of water, surrounded by a fringe of fiords many of which still carry glaciers. In the southern part of the Sound copper pyrites have been found in large masses in several localities. If other conditions prove favorable, these deposits may become the seat of a new mining industry hitherto untried in Alaska. Surveys have been pushed by the officers of the army and the Coast Survey during the present season about the Copper River delta and in several of the fiords; a hospital for scurvy patients from the interior has been kept up, and many stranded prospectors who were able to work have been set at clearing trails until their accumulated wages would enable them to pay their way on the steamer out of the country. Invalids have been sent out at Government expense.

The effect upon the natives of the sudden influx of gold-seekers has been of two kinds. The energetic and hard-working native has prospered greatly, as his costume and domicile bear evidence. Those less sensible have fallen victims to the usual causes of mischief among the aborigines. Three years ago there were some 200 natives of Innuit stock in Prince William Sound. Now, I am informed on good authority, only 62 remain alive. A rapid diminution in the number of Indians in the Sitkan region is generally reported, and my own limited observations seemed to indicate that there is a foundation for these reports. The coming census enumeration will probably give more exact information.

In Cook's Inlet little change was to be noticed. The small area of placers near the head of the inlet and on Turnagain Arm have been worked as usual; and have paid a moderate return on the investment. The existence of large beds of glacial gravel on the Kenai peninsula east of the inlet led to unfounded claims of the presence of rich placers. A large number of people lost time and money in endeavoring to work these gravels, which are barren and are now wholly deserted. A large hydraulic outfit had been actually received, and, I am told, was abandoned on the beach without even being unpacked.

A new party has been prospecting the lignite beds of Kachekmak Bay during the present season, but we are not advised of the results. The former prospectors have withdrawn. Further to the westward, the Apollo mine, at Unga, is doing well, and, like the Treadwell, enlarging its plant.

Turning northward, the alleged discoveries at Cape Nome, on the north shore of Norton Sound, are the latest sensation. The region is without wood and the placer-ground of limited extent. Most of the ground is already claimed, and the general testimony is to the effect that the gold-bearing gravel is very thin; bedrock being reached, on the average, at a depth of two or three feet. Some gold has, no doubt, been obtained there, but it is probable that these diggings will prove of small importance.

From the Yukon, in Alaskan territory, superfluous and disappointed prospectors con-

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tinue to emerge. A certain number of others come with them, who have been at work, say little, and do not appear discontented. Those who fail in Klondike usually go down the river and swell the tide of emigrants from St. Michael's. It is difficult, from the flood of more or less conflicting testimony, to select that which is reliable; but the best evidence is to the effect that a change is taking place similar to that recorded of Dawson, reason reasserting itself, and matters coming down to a business basis, while monuments of folly are stranded along the river from the boundary to the sea. The rush into the Kotzebue Sound region appears to have been a duplicate of the Copper River craze, and, like it, has resulted in a large mortality, much suffering, and a failure to obtain gold. It is probable that the wild schemes which obtained support in the early days of the Klondike excitement have had their day, and that investors in future will not waste money on snow-locomotives, steam-dredges for bars where there is no fuel, and toy steamers which cannot stem the current of the Yukon.

The prosecution of the salmon fisheries of the Territory is going on with vigor. Numerous small canneries have sprung up, often with a fleet of small steamers to sweep every bay and cove within reach. The fisheries at the great sources of supply, such as Karluk River, are gradually exhausting the fish, each year showing a smaller pack; little if any attempt is made to replenish by hatching out the young fish, and there is no enforcement of the restrictive features of the fishery laws, so that the eventual destruction of the salmon, in a commercial sense, appears to be only a question of time. The codfisheries languish for want of a market for their product; a few vessels sent out by a couple of firms seem to be able to supply all that the inhabitants of the shores of the Pacific at present are ready to consume.

The trade in continental furs is reduced to its lowest terms. The extraordinary prices which the last London sales brought out are a sign of the exhaustion of the supply, which becomes more and more evident with each succeeding year. The fur trade, as a business by itself, may almost be said no longer to exist in Alaska.

The Arctic whaling fleet of the present year does not exceed ten vessels. The pursuit of the whales from Herschell Island has driven the survivors into the recesses of the Banks Archipelago, where this year two or three vessels will follow them. The rendezvous at Herschell Island is to be abandoned, and within a few years Arctic whaling will be little more than a memory. From all of which we conclude that when man is pitted against the lower animals, his energy, persistency, and cunning will prove, in the long run, invincible. Anything bigger than a sparrow will in time be exterminated if it seems to the average man that he can profit by killing it. If this tendency is to continue unchecked, we may well wonder what is to be left for future generations. W. H. D.

PROF. DICEY ON THE AMERICAN CONSTITUTION.

LONDON, August 1, 1899.

Prof. Dicey's first lecture before the Oxford University Extension meeting consisted in a comparison of the constitutionalism of Republican America, as exhibited in the Federal or the State constitutions, with the modern monarchical Constitution of England. The constitutions of the thirteen colonies, he said, were English; the Declaration of Independence effected no material change. The common law of England and English statute law up to 1776 still applied as before. The men who carried through the American Revolution were, like the Whigs of 1689, "the least revolutionary of Revolutionists." Nowhere more than in America, whence the French had been triumphantly expelled, was there greater exultation in the freedom of the English people, as contrasted with other European peoples who lived under despotisms. Americans shared to the full a prevalent belief that the prosperity of England was due to its Constitution. The complaint of the colonists was that in their case the principles of the Constitution had been violated. Washington, like George III., might have termed himself "a revolution Whig." Kent has recorded the great impression made on him by reading Blackstone's Commentaries, which had in America a circulation quite immense for the time. Montesquieu, then widely acknowledged as an authority on the English Constitution, was admired by Burke as much as by the authors of the 'Federalist.' At the moment of separation, the English Constitution "seemed to every American the model of a free government." Moreover, the English colonists brought to the New World, with the common law, "all those conceptions of individual freedom and the proper relation of the Government to private citizens which had found expression in the Constitution of England."

Turning now to details and qualifications, feudal elements surviving in England naturally disappeared in America, especially in New England, where Puritan ideals prevailed. Montesquieu's influence emphasized the importance of the principle of the separation of powers; and "the necessity for substituting a written and rigid for an unwritten and flexible constitution" worked changes far greater than American constitutionalists probably realized. A like reverence for the rule of law obtains in America and England, as contrasted with a tolerance, as in France and elsewhere, of special rights and special laws for the Executive and its agents. In both countries, "the private rights of citizens to personal liberty" are "the foundation rather than the result of the Constitution." Universal suffrage was not more essential to the American Constitution as originally framed than to that of England in 1786. The supremacy of the Constitution in America, and the consequent function of the judiciary in disregarding laws inconsistent with the Constitution, whether of the State or of the United States, is a point of clear difference between America and England. This American provision results from Montesquieu's doctrine as to the importance of the separation of the three powers. Another specifically American arrangement is that of the non-parliamentary executive. The President has powers which may enable him, under favoring circumstances, "to balance or even to overbalance the authority of Congress." His Cabinet officers are "just such a Ministry as George III. would have instituted if he could." It has been well said by Mr. Bryce that Abraham Lincoln was more powerful than had been any Englishman since Cromwell.

The subordination of Congress and the State Legislatures to the Constitution of the United States and of the several States was here dwelt upon, and the position of the judiciary was discussed. Suppose an English judge having to deal with a contract under the Gaming Act of 1892. If he holds that act to apply, he treats the contract as void, and his duty is done. It may be otherwise with an American, say a Philadelphian, judge, who may clearly see that the Pennsylvania act applies, and may yet have to disregard this act as in some definite way violating the State Constitution. In this particular an American judge has a duty not paralleled in the range of an English judge's functions.

Another peculiarly American constitutional practice is that of legislation by the people through a Constitutional Convention, which may be elected with the express purpose of limiting certain powers as exercised by a State Legislature. Such a convention differs materially from French constituent assemblies such as that of '48 or '71. The sovereignty of the French people is for the moment vested in such an assembly, which has more duties than that of framing a Constitution. The American Constitutional Convention is "the very best form of law-making by the people, for (1) it is not elected on party lines, (2) it may and does contain eminent men who would not, or could not, take part in ordinary political affairs; (3) its whole mind is devoted to constitution-making; (4) it is not distracted by national dangers or party considerations; (5) it cannot carry measures opposed to popular opinion."

Prof. Dicey's second lecture dealt with the working of the American Constitution. Briefly adverting to the fact that in his first lecture, a skeleton outline of the American Constitution, space had forbidden his doing justice to the Senate, the lecturer remarked that the building of a constitution was one thing and the working of it quite another. The latter depends upon the character and circumstances of the people who manage it. There were conspicuous merits in the working of the American Constitution. At the very outset it accomplished what was little short of a miracle in politics. There was a period between the Declaration of Independence and the final adoption of the present Constitution, which came after the Treaty of Paris and was therefore not a favorite subject of study for Englishmen. This period was characterized by a degree of political inefficiency on the part of the newly freed colonies that made its history a painful topic for Americans. To this period a term was set by the adoption of the Constitution, and the marvellous political success which the new order palpably organized and made possible served in large measure at once to account for and to justify the loyal enthusiasm with which Americans regarded their Constitution.

Three great and good results, among others mentioned by the lecturer, were impressively dwelt on. The Constitution had adapted itself to expansion of territory and population unparalleled in history. The area over which it is the ultimate and organizing law is prodigious, and the population under it had grown in 1890 from that of Switzerland, or about three millions, to sixty millions. Over

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this vast empire there prevailed such absolute freedom in matters religious as was elsewhere unparalleled in history. This was a great consummation, as was also the substantial recognition of the rule of law in every part of the Union. Furthermore, Americans had achieved in an incredibly short space of time the complete abatement of the worst sort of bitter feelings ordinarily so persistent and ineradicable after sanguinary civil strife.

As to the defects in the working of the American Constitution, these attached, said Prof. Dicey, partly to circumstances and in some degree to the Constitution itself. Circumstances had been most favorable at the outset, but the strain of a sort of world invasion had been sudden and severe, with results of mixed good and evil. A trend towards a somewhat exclusive interest in the greater concerns of the nation at large, to the neglect of local and State issues, had been accentuated unhappily by the unscrupulous naturalization of raw and ignorant immigrants, often of more than questionable antecedents. Then, also, there was the custom inherent in various constitutional provisions of requiring that a member, whether of Congress or of a State Legislature, or even of the city Boards of Aldermen, should be eligible only by his immediate neighbors. No Congressional district could be represented by a member whose residence was outside of the narrow limits of the district. Apply such a rule retrospectively in England, and that remarkable group of reforming Whigs who lived mainly in Edinburgh, founded the *Edinburgh Review*, and got themselves elected to represent various boroughs not in Edinburgh and many of them bearing the unsavory title of Rotten Boroughs, could never have come to the front, could never have carried through that programme of necessary reform upon which the present soundness of the English Constitution so largely depended.

Inherent in the Constitution of America were also several serious defects, which could be summarily connected with what might be called its unresponsiveness. Its wise framers, fresh from the abuse of power at their expense by George III., nurtured in traditions full of analogous abuses of power in the colonies by irresponsible and incompetent colonial governors and other emissaries under the prerogative, had devised a system of checks and balances which effectually hampered the various powers of their body politic. But, in the working out of their system, responsibility had disappeared along with all possibility of the abuse of power. Hence arose a situation in which the Government at Washington did not feel responsible for the acts of the Government of say Illinois, while in Illinois necessary acts of government in the local interest were hampered and suspended in a vague expectation of interference from Washington. In the matter of taxation, there was an entire lack of any provision making it any one's duty to consider the whole amount of taxation imposed upon the people. Congress dealt with Federal taxes, while the several States imposed such local taxes as they deemed necessary. The prevalence of lynching and the small proportion of actual convictions for murder, as well as the alarming frequency of homicide, were then adverted to in feeling terms. The lecturer closed by hinting that the one thing most indispensable for righting the most glaring wrongs now made possible by the working of the American Constitution, was some modification of those constitutional provisions requiring those who receive political office by popular election to be actually resident in the district that elects them. The good men and true are there in America; let them but be brought to the front as they were when the Constitution was framed, and effectual remedies will not be far to seek.

Correspondence.

A HOME-MADE BATH-TUB.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Years ago there was a worthy lady among us who did much good and useful work through the news press of her day, heedless of the scoffing Philistines who sought, among other stupid and short-sighted methods of their kind, to cast ridicule on her reformatory efforts by mispronouncing her good Teutonic name of Swisshelm as Swizzle'em.

One of Mrs. Swisshelm's press letters gave detailed instruction to those of her own sex whose only appliances for lavatory processes, outside of water and towel, were restricted to a basin, but who were nevertheless as appreciative of that condition which ranks next to godliness, and, though unversed in methods, as anxious to experience it in their own persons, as their luckier sisters, whose bath-room facilities were of the amplest and most expensive sorts. The good lady, being very minute in her instructions as to the best way, with very limited material, in which to apply the purifying element to the whole body, a fine opportunity was afforded for the wit which finds its more congenial field in salacious ruts than in lustral operations; but doubtless there were thousands of poor, hard-working women who blessed the writer and her medium of communication for putting them in the way of enjoying, in privacy, full baths at as little cost as that of washing their hands and face.

What has brought to my recollection Mrs. Swisshelm's good letter in the cause of cleanliness, and its accompaniments of comfort and health, is that there have just been placed in my hands some copies of a printed sheet, headed "Cheap Baths," which its author has arranged to have distributed gratis, on application to the office of the Newport (R. I.) *Mercury*, and which shows how Mrs. Swisshelm's minimum appliances can, at a cost of fifty cents, be extended to a sufficient substitute for the hat-bath which is every morning—or oftener—brought into one's bedroom or dressing-room, for the exclusive use of each sleeper, in the finest country houses in England, and is filled to the required height with water for the use of the bather. This is done on the theory that a bath-tub confined to one person, and used in one's own room (though it lacks what we are apt to consider the crowning advantage of providing for complete immersion), is preferred by most people on the other side to waiting one's turn with others—sometimes at a considerable distance from one's room—for the long, fixed tub of our bath-rooms. That this preference is not confined to transatlantic people is proved by the fact that one of the most recently built and one of the finest and costliest marine villas in Newport does not possess a single bath-room.

The author of "Cheap Baths" has long been a recognized authority, in both hemispheres, on questions of the planning, construction, aeration, sunning, ventilating, and sanitation generally of congested urban districts; and the fact that he judges a home-made imitation, at nominal cost, of the house-furnisher's metallic or India-rubber hat-bath worthy his serious consideration, as in line with his prolonged, public-spirited efforts towards better housing and living, and that he has been at pains to give an elaborate description of and prescription for his invention, should, it seems to me, commend his sheet to reproduction or quotation, and to a good send-off at the hands of the press.

I enclose a copy. A. J. BLOOR.

STONINGTON, CONN., August 8, 1899.

"YOUSE."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit me to say a word in reference to the communication of G. A. Leavens, in a recent issue of the *Nation*, which has just come to my notice, regarding the word "youse." He is wrong in attributing the expression to the "foreign Celt." After acquiring it by association with the American-born, the foreign Celt *may use it;* but he could not possibly bring it into the country with him, as the word is never heard in his native land. Nor is the "Chicagoan," to whom he refers, correct in saying that the word is used in the sense of "yours." The word "youse" is a corruption of "you," second person, plural number, nominative case, and is heard in the speech of the illiterate native-born in New York State. When the "foreign Celt" does not say "you," he says "ye."

Respectfully yours, M. FITZ C.

ROCHESTER, N. Y., August 7, 1899.

Notes.

The Funk & Wagnalls Co. announce a 'Standard Encyclopædia' companionable with and supplementary to their 'Standard Dictionary.' The size of the work is not estimated.

'The Vizier of the Two-Horned Alexander,' by Frank R. Stockton, with illustrations by Reginald Birch, and Paul Leicester Ford's 'The Many-Sided Franklin,' are among the fall publications of the Century Co., along with Mrs. Burton Harrison's new novel, 'The Circle of a Century.' Six of this author's books have been taken over from Lamson, Wolffe & Co. by the Century Co., as well as two of Mr. Charles F. Lummis's from their former publishers.

A. S. Barnes & Co. will shortly publish 'The Mind and Art of Poe's Poetry,' by Prof. John Phelps Fruit.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, will soon issue 'A General Survey of American Literature,' by Miss Fisher, author of 'A Group of French Critics.'

Special interest attaches to the announcement of Houghton, Mifflin & Co. that Mr. Walter H. Page has resigned the editorship of the *Atlantic Monthly*, and has accepted an invitation to take a prominent post in the direction of the literary work of the allied

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houses of Harper & Brothers and the Doubleday & McClure Co. His successor in the editorship of the *Atlantic* is Mr. Bliss Perry, the well-known novelist and essayist, lately appointed to the Holmes professorship of English literature at Princeton University.

Prof. J. Mark Baldwin's 'Social and Ethical Interpretations in Mental Development' (Macmillan), which we noticed at some length a year ago, has meantime been translated into French by Prof. Duprat, and appears as No. 18 of the "Bibliothèque Sociologique Internationale" of M. René Worms (Paris: V. Giard & E. Brière). In a new preface, which bears date of Princeton, January, 1899, Prof. Baldwin sets forth his relation to M. Tarde and to Bagehot in respect of views reached in common by these three thinkers, yet independently and by different routes. Some differences with M. Tarde are also touched upon. The French version fills almost exactly the same number of pages as the original.

One has only to read Mrs. Walworth's report on the convalescent camp at Montauk to recognize the value, as incidental history of the late war, of the statistical volume, 'Women's National War Relief Association,' just published in this city by the Board of Directors. While its numerous portrait illustrations (added to many others) make its aim seem partly monumental, it is a veritable "document," proving for the thousandth time, in Mrs. Walworth's words, "that war is tragedy; that war is hell." Above all, it is the mismanagement, misjudgment, and miscalculation or want of calculation manifested by the War Department which shine in these pages.

What such a publication as this, or the professional 'Medical and Surgical History of the Rebellion,' does to evolve a truthful image of war, the Medical Reports regularly issued by the Imperial Maritime Customs at Shanghai do towards revealing the mode of life of the Chinese. That for the half-year ended September 30, 1898, the latest to hand, contains Dr. Macdonald's report on the health of Wuchow—a city which, he says, "like all I have ever seen or heard of in Cathay, is an overcrowded, unsanitary slum, in which it would be futile for Europeans to attempt to retain health, and utter folly to attempt to rear their families." Its "execrable" state he exhibits in detail. "This is a joyless town," and "melancholy is emphasized by the custom of public wailing."—"The people are not fond of reading; they attend no stimulating public meetings; they are profoundly ignorant and without resources. This is one cause of the opium habit."

We have received from the Kingsley-Barnes & Neuner Co. of Los Angeles, Cal., a volume entitled 'The Free Harbor Contest,' by Charles Dwight Willard. The contest was between those who wished to get a Government appropriation for constructing a harbor at San Pedro, and those who insisted that the money should be spent at Port Los Angeles. The latter port was favored by the Southern Pacific Railroad, which controlled the land approaches; and the manner in which its cause was maintained in Congress is told with much vivacity by Mr. Willard. In fact, his book is of value chiefly as showing how laws are passed and how appropriations are determined by Congress. Even after the victory was won by the advocates of San Pedro, it seems, Secretary Alger was induced to delay action until they trembled lest their astute enemies might after all triumph.

'Otia Merseiana' is the title of the first volume, generously printed, of an annual publication intended as the medium of the new Arts Faculty of University College, Liverpool (London: Th. Wohlleben; New York: G. E. Stechert). Ten papers, long and short, offer a variety suited to many tastes. The greatest space is accorded to two lectures, by R. Caton, on the Temples and Ritual of Asklepios at Epidaurus and Athens, with numerous interesting illustrations. Next comes Dr. V. H. Friedel's "Études Campostellanes," or study of the Codex Calixtinus, a "codex archetypus," preserved in the cathedral of St. James of Campostella. It would, he says, have been revised by a second visit to the archives, but for the return of the sick soldiers from Cuba, which made the province of Galicia very unsanitary. Another long article is that by E. H. Parker on the Population and Revenue of China, in which the enormous fluctuations in the number of inhabitants are to be noted. R. J. Lloyd's "Attempted Reformation in the Pronunciation of Ancient Greek"; Kuno Meyer's "Stories and Songs from Irish MSS."; R. Priebsch's "Chief Sources of Some Anglo-Saxon Homilies," and John Sampson's "A Welsh Romani Folk-Tale [The Master-Thief]," are still other dishes in an excellent feast.

M. Jules Lemaître has taken a hand in the anti-Masonic propaganda in France. In a little volume, 'La Franc-Maçonnerie' (Paris: M. A. Leret), he shows an astonishing familiarity with the doings of the secret order of which he, of course, is not a member. The harmful influence of the Freemasons, according to him, dates from the beginning of the present Republican régime, when they became a political agency and anti-religious sect. It was in consequence of this transformation that, in 1888, the American lodges broke off all relations with the "Grand Orient" of France. What the present propaganda is aiming at is the application of the existing law relative to secret societies to the Freemasons, and, furthermore, the right of association for all legimate purposes. Another publication bearing the same title as the above (and the imprint of Perrin & Cie.), contains the results of a study of Freemasonry in France, by M. Georges Goyau, published last spring in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. Its tenor is the same as that of M. Lemaître's book, which it even surpasses in fulness of detail pertaining to the machinations of French Freemasonry during the last thirty years.

The comparison of the English and the French by M. Demolins (known to our readers), and now by a writer using the *nom de guerre* of "Anold," reminds one of a discussion between freshmen as to the relative merits of Homer and Shakspere. Anold protests that, were it not for M. Demolins, a comparison between the two peoples would never have occurred to him; "for, in order to compare two individuals, it is necessary that they should have something in common." Nevertheless, he has chosen for his title 'À Quoi tient la Supériorité des Français sur les Anglo-Saxons' (Paris: Fayard Frères), and his register of Anglo-Saxon sins is quite as long as M. Demolins's catalogue of virtues. His conclusion is that in physical power and energy the Anglo-Saxons are superior to the French, but are their inferiors intellectually and morally and, above all, in the realm of art. The writer indulges in much sarcasm, he is often flippant and sometimes silly, his judgment of conditions in the United States is incorrect, and in his fear and condemnation of all foreign influence he is a thorough *chauvin*. Yet his criticisms of M. Demolins are often well taken, and his book, as a source of information on contemporary France, is worth reading, more especially the second half, "Le mal dont nous souffrons," in which he is, in his own way, quite as severe as M. Demolins himself, and whose every page reflects the lurid political atmosphere hanging over Republican France.

Some idea of the proportions which the Dreyfus literature has reached may be formed from the fact that a single Paris publisher, P. V. Stock, has on his list eighty-eight publications on the *Affaire*, or bearing some relation to it. Some of these publications are pamphlets, but most of them are volumes listed at from one to twelve francs each.

M. James Hocart, a Frenchman by birth, a British subject, and at present a liberal Protestant pastor at Brussels, has published in a volume, 'La Question Juive' (Paris: Fischbacher), five lectures, in which he defends the Jews against the accusations of the anti-Semites, and more especially against the insincere and ill-founded attacks of Édouard Drumont. The book is written in a generous spirit, and the arguments—historical, ethnological, religious, and economical—are supported by the best of authorities. The writer recalls the fact that there are in all France, according to M. Leroy-Beaulieu, only about 80,000 Jews (Reinach puts the number still lower), while Drumont asserts that their number in Paris alone amounts to from 120,000 to 140,000, and in the provinces to 400,000.

Handy volumes of well-selected French popular songs are rare. Prof. Jakob Ulrich's 'Französische Volkslieder' (Leipzig: Rangersche Buchhandlung) will therefore be welcomed by students and teachers in that field. It was published to supply a want felt by the editor himself when delivering a course of lectures on French folksong at the University of Zürich. Ballads and romances form the majority of the selections, but the other species of popular songs are also represented.

A little lesson in French has been administered in Canada on occasion of a sonnet to Sir W. Laurier produced in Parliament on a hot day by C. A. Gauvreau, M.P. The Montreal *Reveil* (June 3) took it up at various points, beginning with the first line—

"Il n'a rien *affronté*, lui dont le nom sans tache"—

which seemed to be contradicted by a later one—

"Il *combattit* pourtant, superbe et sans relâche."

This criticism had an echo in Parliament, when the Opposition taxed Sir Wilfrid, by confession of M. Gauvreau, with not having braved (*affronté*) anything, exposed himself to anything, looked anything in the face, combated. M. Laurier came to the rescue of his admirer, maintaining that the meaning which the poet intended for *affronter* was 'to deceive' (*tromper*); so that the first phrase should read, "Il ne s'est pas rendu coupable de tromperie." To this the *Reveil* replies (July 8) that the dictionaries are unanimous in making 'deceive' an obsolete meaning, and that such an application in the sonnet would be purely fantastical.

An historical word-study of the term "pa-

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gan," or, rather, its German equivalent, "Heide," of unusual interest, is found in the *Neue Kirchliche Zeitschrift*, No. 1, *a. c.*, from the pen of Prof. Th. Zahn. He shows that the derivation of the word from "pagus," a village, in the sense that the villagers, accepting Christianity later than the city population, were early regarded as the representatives of paganism, cannot possibly be correct because it is in conflict with actual historical facts. Rather "paganus" is the opposite of "miles," the oldest conception of a Christian being that of a warrior, and the former term was often used in the sense of a non-military person. The "pagani" were accordingly those who were not soldiers of the cross. Zahn's study, which covers more than twenty-five pages, is a notably complete and exhaustive discussion. We remark that in the Oxford Dictionary the parallel sense of "rustic" for "heathen" is discredited, the difficulties alleged being both chronological and etymological.

The Berlin musical correspondent of the Milan *Perseveranza* (issue of July 18) writes of two attempts in Germany to make an opera of Hauptmann's 'Die Versunkene Glocke.' One, by Heinrich Zöllner, has already been performed, without giving satisfaction to the Hauptmannites, yet offering some interest to musicians. The absence of recitatives was felt, and the Bell itself was ineffective when it sounded. The general treatment was Wagnerian.

The *Annales de Géographie* for July opens with an article by Prof. W. M. Davis of Harvard, in which he defends his theory of the formation of the peneplain against the arguments of Prof. R. S. Tarr of Cornell. This is followed by an anthropogeographic study of Corsica, in which Prof. F. Ratzel attempts to show how its insular position has affected its history. Prof. Lévi of the Collège de France has an interesting sketch of a recent journey across Siberia by rail, steamer, and tarantass. He gives evidences of the energy and wisdom with which the Russians are developing the resources of the country. The Government grants very few concessions for mines in the gold district, for instance, fearing that the gold-fever, already very strong, might "compromise or ruin" the normal growth. Travellers are very numerous, and include, besides officials and engineers, many commercial agents. The railway, on account of its hasty construction, light rails, and weak roadbed, is deemed "a strategic instrument of doubtful value." There are also minor articles on agriculture in France, the maritime commerce of Germany, some illustrated notes on an Algerian plain, and on the economic value of Samoa.

In accordance with a resolution of Congress approved March 1, the United States Geological Survey publishes Maps and Descriptions of Routes of Exploration in Alaska in 1898, together with general information concerning the Territory. The folded maps are ten in number, one (general) showing previous routes of exploration during the present century.

The development of the regions within the Arctic Circle is not confined to Alaska or the Yukon. In an account of the Murmanian coast by F. Immanuel, which occupies the whole of the main part of the sixth number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, the story is told of the construction of a naval station and commercial port at Katharine Haven in the extreme northwestern part of Russia. Here, on the shore of the Arctic Ocean, in an absolute wilderness, seven hundred miles from the base of supplies, is a town with Government buildings, church, schools, biological laboratory, telegraph, tramway, and electric lights. A dry-dock for large vessels is planned, and work has probably already begun on a railway which is to connect the port with St. Petersburg. The ceremonial opening of Alexandrovsk, which has been but three years building, was to have taken place in July in the presence of the Grand Duke Vladimir Alexandrovitch, for whom the town is named. Its great importance lies in the fact that, through the influence of the Gulf Stream, it is ice-free throughout the winter. This was known to Peter the Great, who first conceived the idea, which his successor has at length carried out, of making it a naval station. The commercial value of the coast lies mainly in the cod fishery, 963 vessels having been engaged in it in the summer of 1895. The Government is making serious efforts to improve the condition of the fishing folk by schools and loans for the purchase of boats and tackle.

A Danish northern-lights expedition has just left Copenhagen for Iceland. Its headquarters will be at Akureyri, a prettily situated little town on Iceland's northern coast—one not without social attractions, and having a small public library as well as several important trading establishments. The expedition has been for several months under preparation, and its members have been carefully practised in the use of the instruments, all of the latest construction, which it carries with it. While the headquarters will remain at Akureyri, an auxiliary station will be established on a high hill not far away, and the two stations will be connected both by telephone and by an optical telegraph. The Director of the Danish Meteorological Office, Dr. Adam Paulsen, is at the head of the expedition. He will test his own published theories on the aurora, as well as all the other late ones advanced by various scientists. Among the instruments to be used are photographic ones of great accuracy, and others of a novel character for the measurement of aerial electricity. Dr. La Cour and Dr. Jantzen are the two chief aids to Dr. Paulsen, while Count Harold Moltke is attached to the corps as its artist. The expedition will return in May, 1900.

From recent statistics of the vaccinations at the Pasteur Institute, in Paris, it appears that of 1,465 persons treated in 1898, all but three were cured. The mortality, which in 1886 was 94 per cent., has thus been reduced to about 20 per cent. In the thirteen years from the foundation of the Institute till the end of 1898, 21,631 persons were treated in Paris, and of these 99 died.

The bill for providing seats for shop-girls in Scotland has been rejected by the House of Lords after it had gone successfully through the House of Commons. The Parliamentary committee of the Scottish Trades-Union Congress had readily agreed to coöperate in promoting the bill, and it was at their instance that it had been brought forward by the Scottish members of Parliament. The extent of the outcry that has been raised against this action on the part of the Lords shows how near to the heart of the nation lie all questions of social legislation at the present time, and how far the standard of moral responsibility has been moved up.

—*Scribner's* for August is avowedly a fiction number, and to that end contribute, among others, Richard Harding Davis, in a moment more or less *perdu*, Dr. Van Dyke in canoeing mood, Thomas Nelson Page with a well-told story of the South in the dark days succeeding carpet-bag rule, and Albert Vorse White in a clever sketch of New York's Italian Marionette Theatre, illustrated by a red right-hand. Space to breathe, how short soever, from fiction, is granted to a few papers. Senator Hoar's second one on Daniel Webster gives that statesman's impression of London in '39, when he visited the Parliament houses and found himself knowing more than his guide. Mention is made of Mr. Jeremiah Evarts as a devotee to the cause of the Indian, to which cause, indeed, he gave his life. He claimed to have had Webster's promise of support, but nothing more seems to have come of it than a memorandum in Webster's handwriting, evidently for a speech to be made in the Senate in the Indian's behalf. Mr. Hoar commends to the youth of the country, for careful study, Everett's 'Life of Webster' as on a par with the 'Agricola of Tacitus.' He quotes a letter of Lord Ashburton's to Webster as vindication, in its tone of esteem, of Webster's integrity in the Maine boundary settlement. From one sentence in the letter, "I do not pretend to be a free-trader for America," our Senator derives great comfort, wishing that "many of our English advisers and many Americans who have been prone to take their advice, had been as sensible." Robert Louis Stevenson's letters in this month's instalment embrace, among others, several to Mr. William Archer, whose criticisms of Stevenson the latter calls "very bright and neat, and often excellently true." The whole paper is, as Stevenson writes to Henry James of the 'Princess Casamassima,' "full of lineament." Two agreeable outdoor articles are Ernest Seton Thompson's "The Trail of the Sandhill Stag," blending natural history and poetry under a thin veil of fiction, and Theodore Wores's on "Japanese Flower Arrangement," both charmingly illustrated by their writers.

—*In Harper's*, one of the inevitable warlike numbers is by Lieutenant Calkins of the United States Navy, on the Filipino Insurrection of '96, made from a study of Spanish archives left in Manila. The story of Blanco's failure is thus summed up: "Spain's colonial policy could not be carried on by men who strove to be simple and loyal, hopeful and humane." Aguinaldo's career is followed dispassionately but admiringly, and modern conquest in the Philippines is declared never to have extended itself "many miles beyond the range of naval artillery"—a lesson which he who executes may read. Rear-Admiral Beardslee writes entertainingly of his share as a small and clandestine midshipman in an episode of the Taiping Rebellion. Dr. Wyeth relates with unction an incident in the career of the Confederate General N. B. Forrest; who, with an inferior force, captured Colonel Streight's bold raiders after five days of eventful pursuit. An Alabama girl of sixteen conducted Gen.

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Forrest to an old ford across Black Creek after Streight's men had burned the bridge, and the fiery General's phonetically spelled note, "left on the bureau" for "Miss Ema Sanson," conveying his "highest Regardes for hir gallant Conduct while my forse was skirmishing with the Federals," gives local color to the picture, especially when from Miss Sanson's account we find that the sly dog had time while she rode behind him in hot haste to the ford to ask her for a lock of her hair. Most haunting and grim of all the echoes of war is Mr. Frederic Remington's story of a Reconcentrado, with his own characteristic illustrations.

—While the conclusion of the letter H by Dr. Murray in the Oxford Dictionary (New York: H. Frowde) is not that of volume v. (H—K), it is nevertheless a notable mark of progress in the mighty work and a subject of hearty congratulation. This section of the vocabulary, we are reminded, is, apart from some prolific Greek compounds, predominantly English. "*H* is not silent in any word of Old English or native origin"; and of all the native words from Ha- to Hu- inclusive, a very large proportion have come down from the earliest periods of the language. Hence, all along the line, the etymologies are obscure, and in the tract Horizontality—Hywe we are balked by *hovel, hoyden, hub, huckster, huddle, hug, humbug, hummock, hump,* and *husk,* to mention only a few. *Humbug,* a cant word, came into vogue about 1750, and directly, in 1751, it was shortened to *hum.* The dialectal word *hub,* though occurring in print as early as 1649, first found dictionary recognition at the hands of Webster in 1828; and when, thirty years later, Dr. Holmes, in the 'Autocrat,' styled Boston State-house "the hub of the solar system," the town presently received the nickname of "The Hub," and the word acquired a universal literary currency in a tropical sense. The same edition of Webster first listed the American word *hydrant,* as useful a vocable as it is irregular in its formation. Marryat jotted it down in his cisatlantic diary in 1839, and it is now fully naturalized in his country. Indigenous are likewise our *hourly* (an omnibus), probably quite obsolete and perhaps always confined to Boston; *hostile* (an Indian on the war-path); *house-lot; how?* (for *what?*), one of Holmes's pet aversions; *hunker,* offspring of the forties, but of uncertain derivation; and *horse-sense,* not traced beyond 1870, when it appeared to be a Western neologism. The sense of 'coarse,' 'robust,' here attributed to *horse* in composition and often exemplified, is not allowed to *horse-chestnut,* in which we are bid see a connection between the animal and his food, as between him and his tormentor in *horse-fly.* Yet the corresponding German *Roszkastanie* offered (p. 398) for comparison harmonizes with manifold uses of *Rosz-* signifying 'coarse,' as *Roszveilchen* (p. 397). However, the old botanical name, *Castanea equina,* appears decisive. The unscientific unit called *horse-power* practically overloads the beast one-third. Lincoln's phrase about swapping horses while crossing a stream, and Caleb Cushing's revolutionary vision of a "man on horseback" putting an end to this republic, have escaped Dr. Murray's readers or sub-editors.

—The perpetual struggle between the written and the spoken word is illustrated in the case of *housewife,* which has three modes of pronunciation conceded to it, the first being as if each word were uttered separately; the next, "huzwif" and "huzzif." Another century might have been added to the citations under *housewifely* if Cowper's "Poet's Cat" had been remembered:

> "When in came, *housewifely* inclined,
> The chambermaid. . . ."

Hullabaloo has been a long time in finding its feet, orthographically; Southey wrote it "hallaballoo" in 1800, adding, "I never saw that word in a dictionary," and after 137 years it is "of still unsettled form." A like discord is observable in *Humeism* and *Humism, Hu'mean, Humian,* and *Hume'ian*—all relating to the philosopher. "*Humour* is now usual in Great Britain, *humor* in U. S.," and the English formations *(e. g., humoured, humourless, humoursome)* retain, with Dr. Murray, the *u,* while derivatives of a Latin type *(e. g., humorist, humorous)* drop the needless vowel. In this way a sort of poetic balance is maintained in Anglo-America. In defining humor it is said to be "distinguished from wit as being less purely intellectual, and as having a sympathetic quality in virtue of which it often becomes allied to pathos." The quoted definitions are noticeably sparse. Lowell's "Humor in its first analysis is a perception of the incongruous" is best, though it stops short. Some have found humor, as in the familiar conundrum, to be a perception of similarity in things unlike; wit, of differences in things like. We observe that *hydropathy* is stressed upon the *o* without an alternative on the *a,* which is often, perhaps oftenest, heard in this country (and so with *allopathy,* but not with *homœopathy*). All early words in English compounded of *hypo-,* we learn, were pronounced with short *y,* upon the Greek analogy. "The later tendency in the South of England has been to treat *y* in all positions except before two consonants as [long *i*], and, against etymology and history, to say *hȳposulphate,*" etc. This double usage is indicated throughout.

—The last volume in the series of public-school histories, that devoted to Winchester College and written by Mr. Arthur F. Leach, Assistant Charity Commissioner (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons), contains a good deal of new information, and will doubtless be valued, in the absence of something better, by the audience to which it especially appeals. But "those unfortunates who are not Wykehamists" will find it exceedingly dull. Unless they are already acquainted with the arrangements of the school, much that Mr. Leach says will be quite unintelligible. School patriotism is an excellent thing; and perhaps such a series as this appears in is not the place to look for any large or philosophic handling of the history of English education. A graceful style, again, is not so common that we can insist upon it; but clearness and correctness of expression we certainly have a right to expect. Headmasters' English is already a subject of scoffing; and this series of public school histories may end, if the editors do not take care, in furnishing one more argument against the system they eulogize. Yet the book deals with some topics which ought to be of interest to the general reader. Among them may be noticed the influence of the example of Winchester, the first of the great scholastic foundations, on the organization of Eton in the fifteenth century, and of Westminster in the sixteenth (pp. 198 seq., 300 seq.); the thoroughgoing and apparently successful defence of London and Bedell, the two Visitors at the Dissolution of the Monasteries, damned by most modern historians, but taken under Mr. Leach's Wykehamical wing (pp. 247 seq.); the ridicule which Mr. Leach pours on the conventional belief that the Roundheads were hostile to learning (pp. 339 seq.); and the amusing assertion that Arnold's "real work" at Rugby "was to introduce more Winchester notions" (pp. 414 seq.). In reviewing lately Mr. Rouse's 'History of Rugby School,' we notice his desire to diminish Arnold's claim to respect as a reformer by insisting on the merits of his Rugby predecessors. We should like to know what he has to say to this Wykehamist version of Rugby history!

—In 'The Natural History of the Musical Bow,' a brochure of some 90 pages (New York: Henry Frowde), Mr. Henry Balfour, Curator of the Pitt-Rivers Museum at Oxford, discusses a subject which to many, even among musical, people will be no less surprising than new. Saturated, as we are, with the elaborate music of our concert-rooms, and accustomed to the sonorous effects of a hundred instruments played together, we can hardly conceive that any human being can find his highest musical ideal in the low twanging of a bowstring struck with a reed. Yet such is the case with countless multitudes inhabiting nearly one-half of one continent and considerable portions of two more, besides many islands of the sea. We are accustomed to regard the bow as something to play with; for them it is something to play on. A scant resonance is given to this unpromising instrument by pressing it against, or holding it in, the teeth; but it remains audible, at best, only a few feet from the performer. Yet the South African will sit for hours together pleasing himself with the few notes which he can produce by changing the form and size of the mouth-cavity, and which no one else is enjoying, or even hearing. It must not be supposed that this primitive type of the musical bow is the only one. In other regions we find it fortified by various contrivances to give it some little resonance. This is usually done by the aid of half a gourd, or calabash, attached by its closed end to the bow, or else set on the ground as a rest for the bow when struck. In all these forms of the instrument, however other arrangements may vary, the bowstring is almost invariably divided into two unequal lengths by a ligature which draws it inward toward the bow, sometimes to actual contact with it; and this ligature is, no doubt, the original of the bridge in our stringed instruments. But we must not anticipate Mr. Balfour's revelations. In a future work he promises still greater marvels—nothing short of the genesis of most of our stringed instruments from this simple monochord. And, indeed, when one thinks of it, what is a Hebrew *kinnor,* or a harp of the ancient Assyrian or Egyptian type, but just such a bow strung with several bowstrings instead of but one? All this and more we hope to see thoroughly explained in the promised book. Of the present little work we can say that it is extremely interesting, easily understood, and, at the same time, of great value as a contribution to ethnographical studies; because, if we can trace one such primitive instrument in all its migrations from the place of its origin, we shall be greatly as-

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sisted in determining the migration of mankind in those regions and the filiation of races. The pamphlet is copiously illustrated, has a good index, and is also furnished with an instructive map showing the "habitat" of the musical bow, so far as at present ascertained.

KNAPP'S BORROW.

Life, Writings, and Correspondence of George Borrow (1803-1881). Based on Official and Other Authentic Sources. By William I. Knapp. Two volumes. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1899.

Mr. Birrell, who has several times made deliverances on the subject of Borrow, somewhere remarks that, while no biography has yet appeared, we need not regret the lack of one, since 'Lavengro' tells his own story so well. And he furthermore censures the rashness of the writer who shall put himself in the lists with such an autobiographer. We are glad that fear of this kind has not deterred Prof. Knapp from telling in a sober, unembellished way the tale of "El Gitano's" strange and rugged career. Goethe's title, 'Aus meinem Leben: Wahrheit und Dichtung,' inevitably suggests itself when one is reading the adventures which begin with 'Lavengro,' run through the 'Romany Rye,' and are concluded with the 'Bible in Spain.' "How much of this is truth, how much poetry or enlargement?" is a question not to be dodged by either the hostile or the friendly critic. It perplexed the early reviewers of the series, and although it may have stimulated the sale of the 'Bible in Spain,' it certainly deprived 'Lavengro' and the 'Romany Rye' of the immediate success which they deserved. Until the doubt be set at rest by careful, sympathetic, and honest inquiry, Borrovians must remain without the means of estimating the real character of books which constantly excite their interest and admiration.

Prof. Knapp has approached his task in precisely the right spirit. He recognizes that there is no need whatever of a fanciful or romantic biography. An ill-advised author possessing a great mass of Borrow's MSS. might have been tempted to work up picturesque incidents—the gleanings or débris of 'Lavengro'—and supplement Borrow's own narrative in an imitation of his style. But Prof. Knapp is kept by reverence for his subject (let alone by discretion) in the dependent relation which a good biographer should assume, and he properly selects for his function the detachment of fact from mystery. How necessary detective work is in a Life of Borrow, may be gathered from two illustrations. He constantly represents himself, in correspondence and in official documents, as being a good deal younger than he is; and during the "veiled period" of seven years which lies between the end of the *'Romany Rye' and the commencement of his* connection with the Bible Society, he was devilling for publishers in London and Norwich, instead of wandering through Transylvania, the Levant, and Asia. He knew his own age quite well, but desired the praise of precocity, while pride in another form kept back any free confession of the miseries which he suffered after he left the road. Other similar tangles, wilfully constructed, baffle Borrow's biographer, besides the commonplace difficulties which are due to mere gaps in the record.

It is not probable that Prof. Knapp would confirm the statement that he has the same feeling towards Borrow which Baudelaire had towards Poe. Still, when one confesses to an enthusiasm which has been maintained for fifty years, he discloses a profound depth of affection. In the case of Borrow as in that of Poe, many faults of disposition confront the casual acquaintance and pain the devotee. A capacity for bitter hatred, growing crabbedness of temper, suspicion of good friends, and an unsleeping pride are defects which no candid writer can conceal, and Prof. Knapp does not even make apologies for them. His attitude is: "In the end, when all the data lie before you, you will come to know the man. The only key to his methods, as to his heart, is sympathy." So much for the biographer's general tone. When we approach details, we find that Prof. Knapp—himself a well-known student of language—lays less stress on Borrow's philological attainments than on his genius. In the petulant appendix to the 'Romany Rye,' a singular claim is put forward on behalf of the "philological pearls" which 'Lavengro' contains; and whereas almost every reader will pass lightly over this smattering of polyglot words and phrases, Borrow undoubtedly considered that he displayed the most surprising erudition in all his books. Prof. Knapp, like other specialists, finds him versatile but somewhat inaccurate. "Il savait parfaitement son grimoire, but in writing he suffered from Babel." Character and literary genius rather than knowledge of tongues are Borrow's chief claims to his biographer's services and devotion.

Few authors have ingratiated themselves with the best judges of literary merit by writing solely about themselves, and among them is Borrow. Exceptional experiences, original reflections, or attractive traits must be possessed by the man who can so hold his readers that the egotism of his strain is not tedious or disgusting. In almost every case, too, where this success has been won, the magic of style is added to the other qualities. We admit that Borrow, towards the end, lost a large part of his audience; but among the remnant are some shining names. How did he recommend himself at the outset, and why, having reached such eminence as he enjoyed between 1843 and 1845, did he die forsaken and forgotten?

Borrow's claims upon the attention of a later age are at least two-fold and separate in nature. Had he never published ten pages, his personality would still be memorable, and then he could, at his best, write a fascinating story. Consider the physical prowess of our average man of letters in the present century, and imagine where he would have stood socially in the Viking Age. A large number of our modern scribes would, we fear, have gone to the wall in the ninth century. Not so Borrow. He, like Sir Richard Burton and Col. Fred. Burnaby, could have taken his part then or at any epoch, just as Isopel Berners does in 'Lavengro.' Six feet three, muscular, ready of speech in twenty or thirty languages, a good boxer, a life-saving swimmer, an accomplished horseman, endowed with striking features, and hair which wore from early manhood the silver of old age, what a figure was Don Jorge in his prime, and what a companion on English heath or Spanish despoblado! He felt keenly the intellectual cravings of the scholar and the physical power of the athlete or the fighter. A being thus endowed is seldom humble, and, when he finds that the world will buy his books, what wonder if his self-confidence oversteps discretion?

Borrow suffered not so much from excessive as from misdirected pride, and we may discover the cause of subsequent calamities in the circumstances of his youth. He lacked regular training, by which we mean in part the discipline of teachers, and even more the discipline begotten by contact with one's fellows. His father was a captain who rose from the ranks, and his mother had been a supernumerary in a company of strolling players. He would not imply that his parents were of themselves unworthy or thoughtless of the boy's real welfare, but they had not the means of helping him forward in the best way. Prosperity at the start would have been everything to Borrow. It would have mellowed his temper, and made him less scornful of those who might be his peers in cleverness and well-meaning, although accident had given them the "advantages" of ancestors, wealth, and a regular education.

When one is conscious of a certain genius, and good fortune persistently turns her face the other way for thirty years, he must be gifted with an uncommonly sweet temper if he escapes without ugly traces of his early hardships. Borrow's disposition would probably have required careful watching in any case, and, so far as we can trace his boyish development, it received little or none. The privations born of poverty entered into his soul, and even after marriage had driven away the wolf their vestiges remained. Writing to his wife from London in 1854, he says: "My spirits are very low and your letters make them worse. I shall probably return by the end of next week; but I shall want more money. I am sorry to spend money, for it is our only friend, and God knows I use as little as possible, but I can't travel without it." And, again, four days later: "The money arrived safely, but whether it will be sufficient is a question. Perhaps you had better send another note, and I will bring it home unchanged, if I do not want any part of it. I have lived very economically as far as I am concerned personally; I have bought nothing, and have been working hard at the Museum. Our money is our best friend."

However one may account for Borrow's successive estrangements from his friends, and the increasing isolation which is so pathetic a feature of his closing years, there can be little doubt that the unfavorable reception of 'Lavengro' affected him most painfully and permanently. When the 'Bible in Spain' was rapidly passing through edition after edition, some of those who knew how unusual the ex-colporteur's life had been, encouraged him to publish other personal sketches. For instance, Richard Ford, the *Quarterly* reviewer, suggested a 'Bible in Russia,' and felt certain that the gypsy vein could be worked still further. Owing, perhaps, to such promptings, but in great part to his deep subjectivity, Borrow began the full narrative of his nurture as a student of languages. Fortunately he could enliven the tale with rare glimpses of wayfaring folk, and unfortunately he could make it an engine for directing certain flings at the Pope and genteel society. After long delays in the preparation, and after the public had been more than once led in vain to expect its appearance, the book issued from

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Murray's press in 1851, just when the Ecclesiastical Titles feud raged fiercest and when the air reechoed with shouts of No Popery. To be sure, the anti-Romanist part had been written long before, but the critics got a wrong impression, and, considering 'Lavengro' in the light of a foolish, hastily conceived attack on Wiseman's propaganda, handled it roughly. Borrow, who had designed something which should outdo the 'Bible in Spain,' became savage under the lash, assumed a bitter attitude towards the literary part of mankind, and through disappointment grew irritable, morose, and unhappy. At intervals a walking tour would restore his spirits for the moment, but between the publication of 'Lavengro' and his death in 1881 he enjoyed few days of settled calm. This mood of hostility or revolt also affected the springs of his literary impulse, and withheld him from making any further ventures on a large scale except the 'Romany Rye,' which concludes 'Lavengro,' and 'Wild Wales.' After his wife's death in 1869 he seldom saw any one, and, owing to his step-daughter's neglect, he actually died alone.

Borrow felt a great deal of affection for certain persons, especially for members of his own family, and he could be extremely generous, but one sees little of the romantic lover in him. He held high standards of decency and honor, resenting breaches of them in others whether he were directly affected or not. Indeed, his striving for robust, manly ends is what endears him to thousands who, through thick mists of prejudice, catch frequent glimpses of his sincerity. One is often staggered by petty misrepresentations contrived in the main for self-glorification, but the whole list of them would no more furnish serious ground for a charge of dishonesty than his hobnobbing with gypsies in the Peninsula would supply a charge of disloyalty to the Bible Society. He was clearly erratic, in his younger days a victim to mental disturbances or *Anfechtungen* which he called the Horrors, often on the verge of suicide, and always angular even when famous and relieved from money embarrassments. The great thing is that he should have ever emerged so triumphantly from gloom as to produce the scene with the gypsy hag at Merida, the fight with the Flaming Tinman, and the score of similar passages which will remain perennially delightful. When the clouds are off his soul, he has a strength and freedom which are precious enough to be reckoned a true gift of the gods.

The chief business of Borrow's biographer, we have already said, is to compare the episodes of the 'Lavengro' series with established facts, and thereby to help us criticise the autobiographical books for ourselves. Prof. Knapp fully recognizes the need of holding fast to this purpose, and, after bringing together almost all the available data, he has reached a definite conclusion. He is convinced that Borrow confined himself to actual events at the outset of the composition, and, despite his statement in the appendix to the 'Romany Rye,' meant it for a strict autobiography. Take, for example, a characteristic exploit of Borrow's London days—*teste* 'Lavengro'—the hurried production of 'Joseph Sell.' Prof. Knapp says:

"We now come to the crucial test. If all the rest of 'Lavengro' is strictly true, why not this 'Life of Joseph Sell,' and the nomadic episode that is the resultant? So far everything has been verified, and the date fixed by reliable records. Only names have been distorted or substituted—the *Oxford Review*, the 'Newgate Lives and Trials,' the 'Publisher's Philosophy'; but they have been identified. Tredinnock was put for Trethinnick, Petrement for Perfrement, Philoh for Philo, Ardry for Arden, Taggart for Bartlett, Joey's for Charlie's, Isopel for Elizabeth, Jasper for Ambrose, etc.; but registers, newspapers, and the autograph MSS. correct them. . . . Returning to the 'Life of Joseph Sell,' a great deal has been said and written to prove that it was an imaginary, an apocryphal book. It has been sought for, but in vain, because it was not a book at all, and the author of it never said that it was. It is expressly stated to have been a tale in a collection or series of such, written by various authors—Christmas stories possibly—that may have been issued with an advanced date, as the 'Bible in Spain' was—in this case, 1826. Mr. Borrow himself did not see the work, and knew not under what general title the 'Collection' was published. He sold the MS. and left town, and did not return to London in more than a twelvemonth. . . . I believe that Borrow wrote such a tale; that it formed part of a series, but under what name I dare not say, for the original autograph gives only 'Joseph Sell.' "

And, in his chronological bibliography of Borrow's writings, Prof. Knapp places 'The Life and Adventures of Joseph Sell' between the translation of Klinger's 'Faustus' and the 'Romantic Ballads.' Whether in the particular case cited his reasons will, or will not seem sufficient to all may be doubted, but the passage shows his confidence in Borrow's credibility. We must add that he often settles beyond question the accuracy of strange things told in 'Lavengro.'

Much might be said concerning the Bible Society and its relations with its accomplished and vigorous agent. Prof. Knapp has been censured for not finding the correspondence which passed between Borrow and his employers, but the present secretary, who informed him that no letters existed, is quite as much to blame. From other sources, moreover, the essential facts have been made out. The Rev. A. Brandram and the Rev. J. Jowett, who were then the secretaries of the Society, felt at the beginning of the connection that Borrow's manner of expressing himself was not quite regular, and Mr. Jowett gave him an admonition in the following terms:

"I am sure you will not be offended if I suggest that there is occasionally a tone of confidence, in speaking of yourself, which has alarmed some of the excellent members of our Committee. It may have been this feeling, more than once displayed before, which prepared one or two of them to stumble at an expression in your letter of yesterday, in which, till pointed out, I confess I was not struck with anything objectionable, but at which, nevertheless, a humble Christian might not unreasonably take umbrage. It is where you speak of the prospect of becoming *'useful to the Deity, to man, and to yourself.'* Doubtless you meant, *the prospect of glorifying God;* but the turn of expression made us think of such passages of Scripture as Job xxi. 2; xxxv. 7 and 8; Psalm xvi. 2 and 3."

Probably Borrow read the texts recommended to his notice and took the hint conveyed in the letter, for Jowett soon after compliments him on the amendment of his language. His masterpiece, the 'Bible in Spain,' was compiled from his official communications to the Society, and if he ever resented Jowett's warning, he later on took very artistic and delicate revenge.

"It is rather amusing," says Prof. Knapp, "to contemplate the Secretary as he stood in those days on the platform of the public auditorium in Earl Street, with Lord Bexley, or the distinguished 'Friend' above named [Josiah Forster], in the chair, reading aloud chapter after chapter of the 'Bible in Spain.' For so it was that the text of the letters tallied with that of the book, save here and there a slight emendation suggested by a later perusal, and the stereotyped heading of *Revd. and Dear Sir*, to conceal the epistolary genesis of the whole."

Prof. Knapp has devoted time and pains without stint to his work. His East Anglian researches, especially, deserve praise, while his acquisition of original MSS. places him in a position of advantage over all other students of Borrow's life and writings. Much of the material for which room could not be found in the biography is consigned to his edition of 'Lavengro.' A certain volubility of style and a slight acerbity towards those of Borrow's contemporaries who would not make a hero of him, are sometimes noticeable, but we readily forget any minute blemishes when we consider the vast amount of neglected information which Prof. Knapp has collected, and the scrupulous honesty which he displays in revealing what he has discovered. Hitherto Borrow has been, if not a myth, at least half in shadow to the vast majority of his readers. Now we can see him in the light of his personal ties, and of his outlook upon the world as it is preserved by his correspondence. We trust that a sense of the service which he has rendered to fellow-Borrovians will reward Prof. Knapp for the toil which he has so willingly expended.

Wordsworth and the Coleridges. With Other Memorials, Literary and Political. By Ellis Yarnall. Macmillan Co. 1899.

Among Mr. Yarnall's earliest recollections were those of Lundy, Garrison, and all the leading abolitionists, whom he met at the house of his aunt, Mrs. Lucretia Mott. There, too, he met Channing, "whose writings against slavery," he falls into the error of remarking, "were of earlier date than that of the beginning of the [Garrisonian] movement." He remembers Sumner saying, in the spring of 1860, that in case of Lincoln's election the Southern States would certainly secede, and he (Sumner) would not lift a finger to retain them; but, after the attack on Sumter, he naturally changed his mind. Mr. Yarnall's belief that Chase and Greeley had each a hope of being made President of a Northern Confederacy—whence their willingness to let the erring sisters go in peace—is too dishonorable to them to be accepted without serious challenge. It was Mr. Yarnall's good fortune to recognize Lincoln as a man of genius before his election. Remembered prophecies are generally of the *post-eventum* kind, but Mr. Yarnall is able to quote from a letter which he wrote to the English *Guardian*. A visit to Lincoln, just before Bull Run, confirmed the impression based on his speeches against Douglas. Another of Mr. Yarnall's prophecies that pleased him had for its object the marked ability of Mrs. John Stuart Mill, long in advance of Mill's adventurous praise of her.

During his first visit to Europe (1849) Mr. Yarnall made an excursion from Carlsruhe to the siege of Rastadt, one of the besieged and a leader of the insurgents being Mr. Carl Schurz. It meant more to go to Europe in 1849 than it means now. "After you," said Allibone of dictionary fame to Mr. Yarnall upon his first return, "you've been in Europe." Emerson, on the contrary, counted it a virtue in Whittier

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that he had never been abroad. Prof. Henry Reed, the Pennsylvania Wordsworthian, had inoculated Mr. Yarnall with his enthusiasm for the poet, and a visit to Wordsworth was one of the most memorable events of Mr. Yarnall's first European journey. His second chapter gives an account of this visit. Wordsworth died the next year, and his physical decay was already strongly marked. Mr. Yarnall speaks highly of his conversation, but reports nothing that might not have proceeded from an ordinary mind. His opinion that there ought to be more English bishops—"five times as many"—smacks strongly of his exaggerated churchmanship. There is even a suggestion of an enfeebled mind in his reading aloud to Mr. Yarnall Prof. Reed's preface to an American edition of his (Wordsworth's) poems, and, after one quotation or another, saying, "That's from my writings." Quite the most beautiful part of the narrative is that which vividly reflects Mr. Yarnall's reverential admiration for the venerable poet.

"Walks and Visits in Wordsworth's Country" reports a succession of visits and rambles in the Lake Country in 1855, 1857, and 1873. In 1855 Mrs. Wordsworth was still living, nearly eighty-five years old, and Mr. Yarnall saw a good deal of her and gives an affectionate account of her; refraining, however, from the capital testimony to her intellectual parity with her husband—her contribution of the magical phrase,

> "that inner eye
> Which is the bliss of solitude,"

to one of his most perfect lyrics. Mr. Yarnall was fortunate in his walking companion, the Rev. Derwent Coleridge, son of S. T. Coleridge and brother of Hartley. Together they visited Greta Hall, where Southey had lived and the Coleridge children were brought up. In 1857 Mr. Yarnall saw something of the Arnolds at Fox How. Miss Arnold told a touching story of the day of Wordsworth's death—how, full of the sentiment of its approach, she and another young friend climbed a hill overlooking Rydal Mount and watched until they saw the shutters closed and knew that the great soul had passed. Henry Crabb Robinson was at the Arnold dinner and talked a good deal, but Mr. Yarnall was not much impressed by him. In 1873 Mrs. Arnold was eighty-two years old, and yet full of cheerfulness and animation. Mr. Yarnall's recollections tally well with Matthew Arnold's letters of filial devotion to his mother in her long widowhood. He questions whether the Lake Country made Wordsworth, or whether his genius had invested it with something of the charm which it has now for all beholders. Seeing that there was only one Wordsworth, the credit of his surroundings for his personality is not easy to make out.

From Wordsworth and the local associations of his fame Mr. Yarnall passes to Sara Coleridge and her brothers Hartley and Derwent. He might well be proud of the friendship accorded him by the sister, and his generous tribute to her mind and character does not exceed their worth. In one of her letters to him she resents as a pure libel Carlyle's account of her father in the Life of Sterling. There is some looseness of statement where she is described as being "as to her mental part almost a child of Southey," and, a little further on, "as to her intellectual part, probably even more indebted to Wordsworth." There are some good bits about her father, of whom Southey said, "Coleridge writes so that there are but ten men in England who can understand him, and I am not one of the ten." Wordsworth and Rogers were not more successful. "Wordsworth with Rogers had spent an evening with Coleridge at Highgate. As the two poets walked away together, 'I did not altogether understand the latter part of what Coleridge said,' was the cautious remark of Rogers. 'I did not understand any of it,' was Wordsworth's hasty reply. 'No more did I!' exclaimed Rogers, doubtless much relieved." Quoting Mr. Derwent Coleridge's criticism on the Brownings, Mr. Yarnall adds one of Tennyson's: "Browning would do well to add something of beauty to the great things he gives to the world." A meeting with Macaulay is reported, mainly interesting because of the frankness with which he revealed his limitations.

Next we have a chapter celebrating with genial warmth Mr. Yarnall's friendship with Sir John Taylor Coleridge and his son John Duke Coleridge, the late Lord Chief Justice of England, which is followed by "Charles Kingsley: A Reminiscence." Mr. Phelps, our former Minister to England, will be pleased to read that Chief Justice Coleridge thought him the most delightful Minister we had ever sent to England; and this after Lowell. Kingsley spoke of Emerson as editing Whitman, and Mr. Yarnall made no correction at the time, nor does he now make any. Strangely enough, Kingsley thought 'Blithedale Romance' the best of Hawthorne's novels. Keble has a chapter to himself, and we get a vivid picture of him in his Hursley church and rectory, the beautiful church built in good measure from the earnings of 'The Christian Year.' An Oxford Commemoration is described in terms which flatter the young barbarians of our own colleges. An elaborate and important chapter on William Edward Forster follows. It is enriched by many passages illustrative of the course of English politics. In conclusion, we have "The House of Commons in 1865," describing a great debate upon the *Alabama* Claims. The day following the debate, Mr. Yarnall had an interview with Gladstone. Lincoln's second inaugural had just appeared, and Gladstone said: "I am taken captive by such an utterance as this. I see in it the effect of sharp trial, when rightly borne, to raise men to a higher level of thought and feeling."

To his own stock of reminiscences Mr. Yarnall has added many apt quotations reinforcing his own sentiments and opinions, and, if some of his stories are not perfectly new, they are such that we are glad to have them told once more.

A History of English Dramatic Literature to the Death of Queen Anne. By A. W. Ward. New and revised edition. Macmillan Co. 1899. 3 vols.

The new edition of Dr. Ward's History has long been waited for. It does not present us an essentially different work from the older one, but it is a considerable improvement, and the revision has been carried out with labor and amplitude. The result is a production which, with all its limitations, becomes indispensable as a reference-book and guide through the vast field with which it deals. Nearly seven hundred pages have been added, extending the work from two to three volumes. An analytical table of contents and a much fuller index greatly enhance the value of this edition, which finally makes complete a monument of encyclopædic learning.

Great as is the author's achievement in this work as we now possess it, it cannot be admitted that the plan and method pursued are those of an ideal literary history, nor that we have here the definitive history of English dramatic literature. Three stages are observable in the writing of literary histories—first, the collection of literary biographies in alphabetical order; second, the arrangement of these in chronological order and by chapters, with occasional summaries and connecting notes; and, thirdly, the organic history, in which at all points the attempt is made to trace the operation of the laws of cause and effect. Dr. Ward's work remains in the second category. It is descriptive and encyclopædic rather than historical. It lacks distinction of style, as well as subtlety and variety in critical appreciation. The author avoids the rhapsodies of Swinburne and the occasionally effusive æstheticism of Symonds, but he also lacks their special gifts. His scholarship, too, lacks grasp, and is summary and judicial rather than penetrating. His temperament and manner are more nearly those of Hallam than of more modern critics. We are given a good digest of the present state of knowledge, displayed with a careful regard for the weight of evidence. We are safe, but we are seldom inspired. There is no trifling with subtlety or whim, and the obvious is given its full value. The author lacks the robust and catholic taste of a born literary critic. He breathes more freely the atmosphere of the dramas of Dryden or Lee than of Webster or Ford (vol. iii., p. 313). The reader wearies of the insistent presentation of the point of view of prudential morality. It is true that the English drama in its great periods offers the most interesting material imaginable for ethical analysis; but it is material which requires to be judged with discrimination as well as in the mass and by the decalogue—witness our author's failure to perceive the full value of the paradox underlying Lamb's famous exculpation of the Restoration comic dramatists (vol. iii., p 507). In the last analysis we others also reject art-for-art's-sake, but in the meanwhile neither art nor the criticism of art should be too obviously concerned with the categories of ethics.

Other peculiarities mark this work. The treatment of the origins of the drama, in the light of our present knowledge, is defective. The author would have done well to follow in this period the guidance of Creizenach. Nor can much better be said of the treatment of the early transition drama (vol. i., pp. 164f.), which at best is halting and vague. Amid the recent fluctuations of critical opinion with regard to the merits of Marlowe, Kyd, and Peele, Dr. Ward's judgments seem to us generally sound and well proportioned. As to Greene, we think he has allowed himself to be swayed too much by the extravagant enthusiasm of Churton Collins and others; while Lyly receives scant recognition. And why should the non-dramatic works

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of the dramatists, as in the case of Greene, be treated so at length in a history of the drama? The excuse suggested (p. 392) seems to us quite insufficient. The work as a whole, as in the earlier edition, is much stronger in its treatment of the later Elizabethan dramatists. Jonson, as before, receives full justice, and the discussion of Chapman is appreciative and interesting. The history of Shakspere's reputation and of Shakspere criticism is considered at length. The pseudo-Shaksperian plays are treated with exemplary moderation of judgment, rising to exceptional appreciation, and justly, in the case of "Edward III." We confess ourselves far from persuaded by the argument for classing the greater Shaksperian comedies as comedies of incident rather than of character. The comedy of character is not the same thing as the comedy of humors. Is it not rather comedy in which the incident flows from the character of the *personæ*, as it does measurably in "As You Like It" or "Much Ado"? Dr. Ward is quite right in holding that Shakspere's greatest power was that of characterization. But characterization marks the comedies as well as the tragedies. Dr. Ward's conservatism in the question of the influence of foreign dramatic sources on the Elizabethan drama (*e. g.*, vol. iii., pp. 264f.) we must hold to be fully justified until further evidence is adduced by those who are for generalizations magnifying this influence. As yet very little has been brought to light to prove the existence of any considerable influence of the early *dramas* of Italy or Spain on that of England.

The author has made the commendable effort, too often neglected by English scholars, to take into account the labors of all previous workers in the field. Naturally some things have been overlooked, such as the work of Fischer ('Kunstentwicklung der englischen Tragödie'), Tolman's thesis on "The Taming of the Shrew," the recent reprint of Bale's "The Three Laws," Collier's reprint of "Horestes," and others. Occasionally careless revision or proof-reading mars the first and second volumes. Additional errata in volume i. should be noted at pp. 63, 72, 76n., 169, 264, 279, 308, 358n., 502, 505 (read "one less than"); and in volume ii. at pp. 57, 320, 561, 619 note 1 (read Brandon), 623 (verb omitted), 638 note 4, 648 note 2. There seems to be contradiction in the several references to the additions to Marlowe's "Faustus" (cf. vol. i., pp. 336-7, and vol. ii., pp. 453, 458, and 468). A slight obscurity of phrase in vol. iii., p. 38, in regard to the authorship of "Henry VIII.," appears to leave an inconsistency with the opinions expressed in volume ii., 205f. and 746.

Imperial Democracy. By David Starr Jordan. D. Appleton & Co. 1899.

There is no uncertainty in the note which rings through these addresses. Human liberty ought to be the corner-stone of a democracy in practice, as it necessarily is in theory; and this truth, and the consequences of disregarding it, are the burden of Mr. Jordan's discourse. His book is headed with a line from Lowell—

> "They enslave their children's children who make compromise with sin,"

and concludes with a citation from Thoreau's "Plea for Capt. John Brown." These voices sound with undiminished clearness across the gulf which separates us from the era of the abolitionists. They will sound long after the sentimental sophistry of our religious expansionists has passed away in shame. Who could now be induced to read one of the numberless defences of negro slavery as a civilizing and Christianizing agency, which were once put forth by the clergy, North and South? But when will Thoreau and Whittier and Lowell be forgotten?

In spite of the subject and his own convictions, Mr. Jordan is not impassioned. His language is often forcible, but it is always within bounds, and his power lies in the array of arguments which he marshals. He examines the claim that war stirs the fires of patriotism, and asks his hearers if they really believe there is now more devotion to our country than there was a little more than a year ago. If there is, how is it shown? Does slaughtering helpless enemies increase our courage? Is it patriotism "to trample on the Spanish flag, to burn fire-crackers, or to 'twist the Lion's tail'?" Rather is it true that patriotism declines as the war spirit rises. "Men say they have no interest in reform until the war is over. . . . The patriotism of the hour looks to a fight with some other nation, not towards greater pride in our own."

Equally forcible is Mr. Jordan in showing what is involved in a colonial policy. It is nothing less than a change in the nature of our government.

> "We must give up the checks and balances in our Constitution. . . . We cannot move accurately and quickly under the joint leadership of a conservative and steady-headed President, a hysterical or venal Senate, and a House intent upon its own reëlection. . . . The town-meeting idea must give way to centralization of power. . . . The extension of dominion rests on the strength of arms. Men who cannot hold town-meetings must obey through brute force. . . . A republic cannot be an oligarchy as well. The slaves destroy the republic. Wherever we have inferior and dependent races within our borders to-day, we have a political problem—'the negro problem,' 'the Chinese problem,' 'the Indian problem.' . . . In the tropics such problems are perennial and insoluble. Cuba, Manila, Nicaragua, will be slave territories for centuries to come. These people in such a climate can never have self-government in the Anglo-Saxon sense. Whatever form of control we adopt, we shall be in fact slave-drivers, and the business of slave-driving will react upon us. Slavery itself was a disease which came to us from the British West Indies. It breeds in the tropics like yellow fever and leprosy. Can even an imperial republic last, part slave, part free?"

To the plea that England administers tropical colonies without injury to herself, Mr. Jordan replies that England is an oligarchy. Her foreign affairs are regulated by a powerful governmental machine, with the control of which the people have nothing to do. An oligarchy may be a good government, but it is not the kind of government that our fathers established. But unless our colonies are to be ruled by an oligarchy, they must be ruled by such rulers as we now choose. What they have done for Alaska, Mr. Jordan tells us minutely, and it is a chapter in our history full of shame and humiliation. We have ruined the hunting and fishing by which the Aleuts formerly supported themselves in comfort, and they are now starving and demoralized. If any one says, We will change all that, and commit the administration of our dependencies to good men only, Mr. Jordan retorts with some of his experiences in suggesting the names of competent persons for Government positions requiring scientific training. Does the recent order of the President concerning the civil service indicate that the change for the better is taking place?

We could continue citing Mr. Jordan's arguments indefinitely, but we have said enough to show how completely he has covered the ground, and how clearly he has stated the issues. His book is an arsenal of weapons for all who detest war and oppression, and who detest them all the more when carried on under the pretence of establishing peace and freedom.

Food and Feeding. By Sir Henry Thompson. Frederick Warne & Co.

Sir Henry Thompson in this, the ninth edition of his valuable work, in which some new matter in relation to "slow cookery" is incorporated, announces that it is to be his final contribution on the subject of Food and Feeding. Of the value of this treatise there can be no better evidence offered than that, above all others, he has succeeded in arousing among the English an effort to improve their culinary methods, which are acknowledged to be inferior to those of any other civilized people. Had he attempted to accomplisn this through appeal to their epicurean impulses, he would have met, as all his predecessors did, with signal failure. He chose his audience among the British middle classes, to the gratification of whose palates through the employment of improved cookery he was careful to make slow approaches. Before enlarging upon that topic, he gained their confidence by impressing upon them the value of varied and succulent diet as a hygienic promoter of longevity. That assured success.

Before disclosing to his countrymen the pleasure to be derived from the proper preparation and serving of aliments, Sir Henry Thompson tells them that they have adopted and maintained for centuries a diet that is suited neither to their climate nor to their mode of life. Their food is too rich in fats and proteids; in consequence, they fall victims to dyspepsia and many other chronic diseases with which they would not be afflicted if they could bring themselves to submit to the light, varied, and easily assimilated diet of their Continental neighbors. This they look upon with contempt, and pride themselves upon subsisting on what they consider "simple and wholesome food," which in fact is most harmful, and leads to premature corpulency that is exceedingly prejudicial to health. It is to his inappropriate diet that may be ascribed the passion of the Briton for violent muscular exercise. It is the natural, unconscious effort to rid his system of surplus and effete matter that leads him to follow athletic pursuits to excess. Of late years, in this particular, we are imitating him; but with us it is a cultivated or artificial impulse, for our diet is one more conducive to a sedentary mode of life than to one that stimulates to inordinate physical exertion. We eat far less of meat than the English, and vastly more of fish, cereals, and vegetables; moreover, the

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culinary art in this country is very much in advance of what it is in England outside of the ranks of the nobility.

There is no other chapter in 'Food and Feeding' that can be read with more profit by the amateur cook or female head of a household than the one which treats of stewing and braising. These two processes come within the domain of "slow cooking," for to hurry the one or the other is to distort their purpose. Moreover, in stewing or braising the least expensive portions of meat can be utilized to concoct most savory and appetizing dishes. No two culinary methods are more abused or open to more complete failure. Their intention is to prepare and serve meat in a tender condition and in the most attractive form. In stewing, the contents of the saucepan, covered, should never be allowed to rise above a temperature of 170 degrees Fahr., and they should be kept at that point for three, four, or six hours, according to the quantity of material that is under treatment. This slow method cooks not only the meat, but likewise the vegetables, which could not be thoroughly done at the same time as the meat with rapid stewing.

In braising, Sir Henry Thompson fails to note one very important detail of the process. It is the outcome of long experience that, in braising beef, as a preliminary the braising-pan should be sufficiently heated to sear the flesh on both sides, before adding the ingredients and proceeding to the process of slow cooking. By this means some of the juice of the meat is retained, while the quantity that forms one of the constituents of the sauce is not materially reduced. Whereas the author of 'Food and Feeding' mentions the *mirepoix*, the *coulis* or sauce of the braise, composed of essence of ham or bacon, vegetables, wine, spices, and strong bouillon, he says nothing of the *marinade*, a bath composed of the same materials, in which flesh products are immersed for eight or ten hours previous to braising. This omission may be taken as evidence of the thoroughly practical quality of Sir Henry Thompson's knowledge of culinary processes. Many experiments with all sorts of *marinades* for meat, fowl, and fish have failed to disclose any advantage to be gained by their use. Salt-pickle is the only one that is completely effective, and that because it is a preservative, and meat can remain in it without decomposing for a sufficient length of time to become impregnated with a saline flavor. All *marinades* would be equally useful if, along with flavoring, they possessed preservative power; but flesh cannot remain in them for a sufficient length of time to become saturated with the savor of their ingredients; therefore, while to the sense of smell a *marinade* conveys delightful suggestions, it fails to respond with equal force to the palate.

There are so many topics in 'Food and Feeding' which arouse interest that satisfaction, to those interested in the culinary art, can be obtained only by perusal of the book. It is of no value to the amateur who pins his faith upon compilations of recipes. The only work, published in late years, that compares favorably with it is Thudichum's 'Spirit of Cookery.'

The Royal Navy: A History, from the Earliest Times to the Present. By William Laird Clowes. In five volumes. Vols. 1 and 2. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1898.

This elaborate work, which is being issued under the direction and partial authorship of Mr. William Laird Clowes, with the assistance of Sir Clements Markham, Capt. A. T. Mahan, Mr. H. W. Wilson, Gov. Theodore Roosevelt, and L. Carr Laughton, is more of an historical storehouse than a history. The scheme of it involves more than strictly naval history, as a very considerable portion of its contents is devoted to the history of voyages and discoveries from the earliest times to the year 1898. The inclusion of this maritime history makes more cumbersome in number and size volumes which at best, under the plan proposed, must be unwieldy. Besides the two under review, three more are to be published to complete the series.

In order to fulfil the design to begin at the beginning, the very early narrative up to 1060 may be necessary, but this portion of the naval and military history of England is uneventful as narrated, and possesses no more value than mere chronicles. When we reach the early maritime codes, we find matters of curious interest. The laws of Oleron, for instance, provided that when a ship was weather-bound, the master must (under penalty in case of damage) call the crew aft for consultation when a change of weather followed. "Gentlemen," he was required to say, "what think you of this wind?" And the voice of the majority was to determine whether the vessel was to put to sea or not. This sounds a little like "Pinafore." In 1215 we find that the management of King John's navy was largely in the hands of the priests, the Archdeacon of Taunton being apparently the chief. Women, too, have had indirect control, but rarely at sea and in immediate command; the example of Cleopatra at Actium standing almost alone. Privateers were found to be as lawless and objectionable in 1243 as in later days, and Nelson's remark that "the conduct of all privateers is, as far as I have seen, so near piracy that I only wonder any civilized nation can allow them," is so pertinent for all time that it is hard to understand why our own country refused so long to agree to the abolition stipulation of the Declaration of Paris, insisting upon a *quid pro quo*, the exemption from capture of merchant vessels at sea.

Coming to later dates and the epoch of Drake and his companions, we find insufficient credit given in this work both to the military qualities and to the achievements of Sir Francis Drake. The student will still have to refer to Corbett's 'Drake and the Tudor Navy' for the most intelligent account of Drake and his successful cruises. In the face of all the recent material that has been brought to light concerning the Spanish Armada, the treatment of this subject is unsatisfactory. It resembles too closely the patchwork of the whole book, and lacks both spirit and blend.

The second volume shows signs of improvement. In the introduction the author refers to a favorite project of his own for preparing historical records of certain ship names. There is very much in a name, both in the navy and in the army, and the habit of renaming ships from older ones of fine record, which exists largely in the British navy, might be followed to advantage in our own service. In fact, if our regiments in the regular army were localized in name in addition to their numerical designation, it would emphasize their identity, and cause them to be followed with interest by the town or section from which they received their name. This would, of course, be heightened if the regiment was partly or wholly recruited from that locality.

The civil administration of the royal navy had become so corrupt in 1628 that vessels for which money had been appropriated and paid over were not even in existence. Similar statements have been made in more recent times of other European Powers, in regard to the construction of fictitious ships that went to sea upon fictitious voyages, and were lost to sight everywhere except upon the books of the dock-yard, which were thus balanced. The military history of the British navy contained in the second volume includes the narrative of the major and minor operations from 1603 to 1714, which attains interest when the author quotes from other authorities; otherwise, the account lacks both style and interest.

For later volumes, not only will there be more abundant material, but more practised hands will take up the parable. The present illustrations are profuse and attractive, varying in form and quality from full-page photogravures to plans and vignettes of considerable excellence.

Au Congo Belge. Par Pierre Mille. Paris: A. Colin et Cie. 1899. Map. Pp. xv, 308. 16mo.

The two fundamental principles upon which the Congo Free State was established by the joint action of the great Powers, were freedom of trade and freedom of the negro. M. Mille's book shows how the first of these has been acted upon by King Leopold, its absolute ruler, and touches incidentally upon the condition of the natives. Our author was the correspondent of the *Temps* at the recent inauguration of the railway, and, in his opening chapters, describes a few of the incidents of his journey to Stanley Pool, of which the most striking was the review of a great body of savages at one of the stations. His main object is to show how this vast territory, eighty times as large as Belgium, with an estimated population of thirty millions, is being developed. Some information is also given of the methods adopted in the French Congo and their results. After an account of the railway and its financial history, he dwells upon the system employed for the collection of the natural products, chiefly rubber and ivory, which, with the exception of a few Government coffee and cocoa plantations, is all that has been attempted as yet in the development of the resources of the country. This is followed by a brief exposition of the King's colonial policy, of the division of the territory into his "private domain" and the provinces in which certain companies have trade concessions, together with some statements in regard to the financial history of these companies. He closes with a reference to what he believes to be the two great sources of danger to the State—the over-eagerness to occupy new territory, and a want of the "sens de gouvernement."

What he has to say about the King's colonial policy is introduced by a suggestive conversation with a fellow-passenger who

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had under his care some four or five thousand rubber vines.

"'Are you going to plant them on the Congo?' I asked. 'Certainly; on my property on the Sankuru, *since I am the colonist.*' [The italics are M. Mille's.] And as he saw that I did not understand him, he added: 'What! don't you know that there is only one colonist in the Belgian Congo, and that is myself? You will find there great companies, . . . you will see some State plantations; . . . but a free man, on his own land, who does a little trading with his own money, and cultivates for himself alone—there is only myself.'"

That is, there is absolutely no private initiative. The whole trade is in the hands of the King and the companies. Certain districts are regarded "in principle as opened to commerce and to private cultivation, in reality only to a certain number of companies," which for the present cannot be increased, new concessions being refused. The rest "belongs to the King, constitutes his particular domain, his park, and his farm," and makes him, to use M. Mille's words (in this case in English), *"the biggest India-rubber and ivory merchant in the world."* It is only on the coast that free trade practically exists. It should be said that the author, so far from condemning this policy, advocates its adoption, with some necessary modifications, in the French Congo, which, neglected by the Government, remains absolutely undeveloped.

M. Mille does not attempt to show—it would be an impossible task—what the natives get in return for their forced tribute of rubber, a tribute at times collected by the military agents as men storm cities ("ont pris du caoutchouc comme on prend des villes"). If the required amount is not brought, the failure is punished sometimes by barbarities which would have disgraced the "conquistadores." The great thing to be desired is some controlling power over these agents which shall see that justice is done to the negro. "When the Belgians shall have established this," the author says in closing, "we shall be able to say that the great commercial and humanitarian enterprise which the Independent State of the Congo is or ought to be, has definitively succeeded." Now it is simply a gigantic ivory and rubber Trust.

An appendix contains some official documents, including the last budgets of the French and Belgian Congo, and commercial statistics. There is also a map.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, E. F. The Modern Farmer in his Business Relations. San Francisco: N. J. Stone Co. $3.
Baldwin, Prof. J. M. Interprétation Sociale et Morale des Principes du Développement Mental. Paris: Glard & Brière.
Cairns, W. B. Introduction to Rhetoric. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.
Day, Miss Susan De F. The Cruise of the Scythian in the West Indies. F. T. Neely. $2.
Franklyn, J. A., and Cooper, N. J. Sewage-Analysis. London: Kegan Paul; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.
Gratry, P. Pages Choisies. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Halloway, Charlotte M. Nathan Hale, the Martyr-Hero of the Revolution. F. T. Neely.
Ilges, F. W. Munkacsy. [Künstler Monographien.] Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Kipling, Rudyard. The Day's Work. Part I. [Outward Bound Edition.] Scribners.
Legge, Arthur E. J. Both Great and Small. John Lane.
Mathew, Frank. Defender of the Faith. A Romance. John Lane. $1.50.
O'Neill, F. J. More Fun than Huckleberries. W. H. Young & Co. 50c.

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